REPORT RESUMES

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WORKER ADJUSTMENT--YOUTH IN TRANSITION FROM SCHOOL TO WORK, AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF RECENT LITERATURE. BIBLIOGRAPHY 2.

BY- GARBIN, A.P. AND OTHERS
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IN THE COURSE OF DESIGNING AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF THE MAJOR SOCIOPSYCHOLOGICAL PROBLEMS FACED BY YOUTH (16 TO 25 YEARS OLD) IN MAKING THE TRANSITION FROM SCHOOL TO WORK, THIS BIBLIOGRAPHY WAS PREPARED TO MEET THE NEEDS OF BOTH RESEARCHERS AND PRACTITIONERS AND TO FILL A VOID IN THE LIERATURE. THE ABSTRACTS, LIMITED TO THE PERIOD 1960 TO 1968, COVER PRIMARILY MATERIALS WHICH HAVE NOT BEEN INCLUDED IN BIBLIOGRAPHIES AND SUMMARIES ALREADY AVAILABLE. THE 165 ANNOTATIONS, ARRANGED ALPHABETICALLY BY AUTHOR, PRESENT THE PURPOSE, METHODOLOGY, AND FINDINGS OF EMPIRICAL STUDIES AND GENERAL SUMMARIES OF NON-EMPIRICAL WORKS. TWENTY-THREE ABSTRACTS ARE OF BOOKS OR MONOGRAPHS AND MORE THAN THREE-FOURTHS ARE ARTICLES FOUND IN APPROXIMATELY 50 DIFFERENT PROFESSIONAL JOURNALS. A USER INDEX IDENTIFIES THOSE SELECTIONS DEEMED, BY A PANEL OF JUDGES, TO BE OF INTEREST TO EACH OF SIX USER POPULATION CATEGORIES--RESEARCHERS, GUIDANCE PERSONNEL, TEACHERS, SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS, WORK MANAGERS, AND "GENERAL INTEREST." A TOPIC INDEX UTILIZING DETAILED TOPICAL BREAKDOWNS IDENTIFIES, ACCORDING TO GENERAL LEVEL OF ANALYSIS (INDIVIDUAL, COMMUNITY, SCHOOL TRANSITION, AND WORK ENVIRONMENT), ABSTRACTS WHICH RELATED MOST DIRECTLY TO SPECIFIC FACETS OF THE GENERAL AREA OF WORKER ADJUSTMENT PROBLEMS AS THEY PERTAIN TO YOUTH. AN AUTHOR INDEX AND A FIVE-PAGE INTRODUCTION PRESENTING AN OVERVIEW OF THE SCHOOL TO WORK TRANSITION PROBLEM ARE INCLUDED. A RELATED DOCUMENT, "PROBLEMS IN THE TRANSITION FROM HIGH SCHOOL TO WORK AS PERVEIVED BY VOCATIONAL EDUCATORS," IS AVAILABLE AS VT 003 304 OR ED 016 811. THIS DOCUMENT IS AVAILABLE FOR $3.25 FROM THE CENTER FOR VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION, THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, 980 KINNEAR ROAD, COLUMBUS, OHIO 43212. (ET)

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Bibliography 2

WORKER adjustment:

YOUTH
IN
TRANSITION
FROM
SCHOOL
TO
WORK

an annotated bibliography of recent literature

THE CENTER FOR VOCATIONAL
AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION
THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY
980 KINNEAR ROAD
COLUMBUS, OHIO 43212

VT005631

The Center for Vocational and Technical Education has been established as an independent unit on The Ohio State University campus with a grant from the Division of Adult and Vocational Research, U. S. Office of Education. It serves a catalytic role in establishing a consortium to focus on relevant problems in vocational and technical education. The Center is comprehensive in its commitment and responsibility, multidisciplinary in its approach, and interinstitutional in its program.

The major objectives of The Center follow:

1. To provide continuing reappraisal of the role and function of vocational and technical education in our democratic society;

2. To stimulate and strengthen state, regional, and national programs of applied research and development directed toward the solution of pressing problems in vocational and technical education;

3. To encourage the development of research to improve vocational and technical education in institutions of higher education and other appropriate settings;

4. To conduct research studies directed toward the development of new knowledge and new applications of existing knowledge in vocational and technical education;

5. To upgrade vocational education leadership (state supervisors, teacher educators, research specialists, and others) through an advanced study and in-service education program;

6. To provide a national information retrieval, storage, and dissemination system for vocational and technical education linked with the Educational Research Information Center located in the U. S. Office of Education;

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BIBLIOGRAPHY 2

WORKER ADJUSTMENT: YOUTH IN TRANSITION FROM SCHOOL TO WORK

AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF RECENT LITERATURE

A. P. GARBIN
Specialist in Occupational Sociology

DOROTHY P. JACKSON
Research Associate

ROBERT E. CAMPBELL
Specialist in Occupational Psychology

ASSISTED BY:
Eugene Cheatham
Michelle Lewis
Ronnie Feldman
Margaret McConahay

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THE CENTER FOR VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION•THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSTIY•980 KINNEAR ROAD•COLUMBUS,OHIO•43212•1967

PREFACE

An effective transition from school to work is becoming increasingly more difficult for a number of American youths. This is evident from the fact that unemployment among youth in the labor force is two to three times that of the national rate and is rising steadily. The problem is of such magnitude that it is of national concern. Realizing the complexity and significance of this problem area, Center personnel are involved in a series of studies which aim to further understanding of the impediments faced by youth in the school-to-work transition, and to make available tested solutions which have the potential of alleviating some of these obstacles.

This selected annotated bibliography was compiled in the course of designing a study on the adjustment problems of youth to the work world. Since a search of the literature indicated that an annotated bibliography which focused specifically on this subject was not available, it was believed that the development of a compendium of relevant sources was warranted and would be helpful to others. It is hoped this publication will stimulate more comprehensive and systematic basic and applied researches on this relatively neglected problem.

Recognition is due Dr. A. P. Garbin, Occupational Sociologist, Dr. Robert E. Campbell, Occupational Psychologist, Mrs. Dorothy Jackson, Research Associate, and other Center staff, for their work on this project. We are indebted to Dr. Sylvia Lee, Specialist in Home Economics at The Center, and Dr. Jerome J. Salomone, Assistant Professor of Sociology, Louisiana State University in New Orleans, for their critical review of this report prior to publication.

Robert E. Taylor
Director, The Center

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WORKER ADJUSTMENT: YOUTH IN TRANSITION FROM SCHOOL TO WORK

AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF RECENT LITERATURE

1

INTRODUCTION

For youth, the period marking the transition from school to work involves problems of adjustment to the adult world. When a youth leaves the social-cultural milieu of the school and enters the adult world, a form of "culture shock" often results;[1] new adult values, expectations, and behavioral patterns are required. Youth are no longer children in a sheltered setting, but responsible adults, on their own in a "grown up" world. They are now held responsible for their actions and it is assumed that they will work at a task without constant close supervision. For many, the demands required by the new situation cannot be immediately satisfied until appropriate patterns of behavior have been learned, integrated, and internalized. This adjustment process takes time.

Cultural values, familial aspirations, school requirements and other factors have conditioned and modified the youngster and his overt reactions. Role requirements, values, and ethics are idealized but not always actualized.[2] There are discrepancies in values deemed as aspirational and those deemed as practical. Youth must learn to adjust and modify his perceived self with the real self, in order to realistically evaluate his place in the adult society.[3] This integration process requires assistance of a supportive nature because of the insecurity caused by the new experiences, attitudes, and values that are introduced in any transitional process.

The youthful worker will not suddenly become an adult but he does begin to throw off the fetters of close restriction which were characteristic of the relationships he had with his parents and teachers. Adults cannot judge the younger generation by experiences they, as adults, had at those ages, as they are the products of different environments.[4]

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[1] H. Kirk Dansereau, "Work and the Teenager," Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 338 (November, 1961), pp. 44-52.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Nathaniel J. Pallone and Marion Hosinski, "Reality-Testing a Vocational Choice: Congruence Between Self, Ideal, and Occupational Percepts Among Student Nurses," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 45 (March, 1967), pp. 666-670.

Often, the basic problem of youth is not in finding a job but in adjusting to and retaining one. Many youth cannot accept responsibility nor adjust to supervision.[5] Carter claims that adjustment problems are related to new situational requirements, e.g., getting used to longer hours, not always being accepted by other workers, and learning the ways of the boss and the work group.[6] Therefore, most problems stem from particular work situations and not from the world of work in general. Dailey feels that the recent graduate must adjust to and develop a working relationship with management practices, customs, experiences, and organizational politics. Many times, a novice employee will be treated as a whipping boy by older employees. He may antagonize them by his conception of his own knowledge and importance, and by his attempts to initiate spectacular changes overnight.[7] Marcia Freedman questions the effectiveness of work-study programs in promoting adjustment to the work world. According to her, these programs are based on the premise that any work experience will have a positive effect, ignoring the fact that the types of experiences available to many marginal or inexperienced youths are in actuality marginal type work.[8] If the acquiring of work habits, self-esteem, recognition, and an understanding of the importance of education and its relationship to work are the functions of work-study programs, then the type of introductory experiences used by the schools must be consistent with these goals. A problem of value orientation plagues youth. Too many work experiences have negative effects and cause an incongruous balance when the youngster tries to reconcile his goals, status, and resultant rewards to the job situation.

According to Gardner, schools do reasonably well in preparing youth for work (teaching skills and developing abilities), but he is concerned with whether the schools actually aid the youth in making the transition from school to work.[9] Counseling and guidance are a necessity, not only in directing youths toward future occupational goals, but also helping in the transition from school through the initial work experiences until the youth feels he has found his place in adult society.

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[4] M. L. Williamson, "Sound Human Relations for Younger Workers," Personnel Journal, 39 (April, 1961), pp. 466-467.

[5] William Amos, "Job Adjustment Problems of Delinquent Minority Group Youth," Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 13 (Winter, 1964-65), pp. 87-90.

[6] Michael Carter, Home, School and Work. New York: Macmillan Company, 1962.

[7] William W. Dailey, "After They're Hired, Then What?," Journal of College Placement, 23 (February, 1963), pp. 59-62.

[8] Marcia Freedman, "Part-Time Experience and Potential Early School Leavers," American Journal of Ortho-Psychiatry, 33 (April, 1963), pp. 509-514.

Youths are in an uncomfortable position. They are asked to renounce, as nonfunctional, many of the ways of their adolescent peer group; but they frequently do not possess the finesse, style, nor the credentials that help to ease their entrance into the work world. Without identification, support, and guidance, the probabilities of success are lessened and moments of discouragement are prevalent. The employment situation does not guarantee a change in values, attitudes, or life style for youths. Any changes that are imposed must permit them to retain their dignity and self-concept as individuals.

To some degree, all adolescents are denied meaningful functions and self-respect in our society. The schools tend to impose conformity rather than to encourage and facilitate the development of self. Youths, therefore, may go through elaborate deceptions in order to be accepted into an established system. If need be, they role play: they are indifferent, lazy, respectful, courteous, dedicated, sincere, untrustworthy, careless, loyal, etc. Their performances are in protection of their self-identity due to some intolerable situation, such as the conflict between requirements by adults and their needs as adolescents.

The demands of the work situation are different from those to which the youth is accustomed. He is no longer a senior member of his school group, but a fledgling member of a work group. Mistakes in school assignments resulted in personal type punishments, but mistakes on the job may result in multiple repercussions affecting many others, as well as inflicting monetary loss to the company. Boredom with school encourages some youth to drop out, while others merely alienate themselves from various aspects of school life and "drift" through school. But, in a factory where repetitive type work is typical and boredom is a constant,[10] youth cannot "goof-off" or "drift" through the work day. They are being paid to produce and are obligated to fulfill this responsibility. Therefore, assistance and counseling are needed to enable the youth, in such situations, to redefine his goals and evaluate each experience in its relationship to his immediate needs and desired pursuits.

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[9] John Gardner, From High School to Job. Reprinted from 1960 Annual Report of Carnegie Corporation. New York: Carnegie Corporation, 1960.

[10] For example see: Willard A. Kerr and Rudolph C. Keil, "A Theory of Factory Experiment on the Time-Drag Concept of Boredom," Journal of Applied Psychology, 47 (February, 1963), pp. 7-9; William McBain, "What Can Be Done About Job Monotony?," Personnel Administration, 26 (May-June, 1963), pp. 24-30; and A. N. Turner and A. L. Miclett, "Sources of Satisfaction in Repetitive Work," Occupational Psychology, 36 (October, 1962), pp. 215-231.

Approximately 30 percent of the youth continue on to higher degree programs after high school graduation, but for the vast majority, a high school diploma is the symbol of a termination process.[11] They proceed immediately into a work situation. Without proper preparation and counseling to ease this transition, many youth encounter problems, not necessarily of a skill level deficiency, but of inexperience and unfamilarity with the values, attitudes, and expectations of an adult working society.

Preparation for the world of work involves learning the sanctioned patterns of interaction with others. Motivations, needs, and habits develop and reinforce the established and manifested behavior of youth in their relationships to co-workers and superordinates, most of whom are older. Motivations are those specific conditions that initiate, direct and reinforce goal-seeking behavior. They are hierarchically arranged within each individual. Unfortunately, habits are not isolated, but interact, interrelate and influence, both positively and negatively, creating an integral part of our self-concept. Replacement of established habits and modes of performance can be very traumatic especially in a transition process where old habits are required to be modified or changed, but needs and motivational systems are constant and demanding. The family and school greatly influence the preparation of a child to live comfortably and productively by creating certain reward systems as inducements.[12] Rewards are a function of our cultural values and attitudes. Different family and experiential backgrounds create divergent patterns of reaction to each kind of authority situation. There is no simple analysis of the relationship between personality types and authority style. The ability to function effectively in an impersonal environment is also part of the modern organizational requirements, and youths must adjust to the modern ethic that suggests a degree of detachment from work.

But long range answers to problems of youth in transition to the adult work world lie in the restructuring of certain educational principles. There is great concern about the implications of youth leaving school and entering employment situations before they are sociologically and psychologically equipped for work. When youth assumes a job status, the initiation rite for transition into an adult culture is mitigated. As President Johnson has said, "We must smooth the transition from school to work."[13]

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[11] United States Department of Labor, Manpower Report and a Report on Manpower Requirements, Resources, Utilization and Training. Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, April, 1967, p. 275.

[12] Lauren Wispe, "A Psychologist Looks at Motivational Problems in Training," Occupational Outlook Quarterly, 9 (September, 1965), pp. 13-15.

Research has been negligent in examining those socio-psychological impediments that prevent a smooth transition from school to work. The paucity of information relevant to the youthful worker, a novice in the work situation, is apparent in an examination of the literature. Much of the material is purely speculatory and superficial. There is a signal need for research efforts that are systematic, comprehensive as to design, conceptually integrated with a body of theory, and based on samples which will permit greater generalization of results. In order to understand the dynamics of the worker adjustment process, longitudinal studies or researches based on stratified samples, similar in certain relevant factors, but different as to period in work career, are warranted.

There is also a dire need to develop more effective instructional materials and other programatic solutions which have the potential of enhancing worker adjustment. The major problems facing administrators in both the educational and industrial domains are those that deal with inculcating receptive attitudes, developing desirable qualities (in addition to technical skills), and providing information about the world of work that will be useful and meaningful for youth in transition.

OBJECTIVES

This annotated bibliography was compiled in the course of designing an exploratory study of the major socio-psychological problems faced by youth (16 to 25 years old) making the transition from school to work.[14] Although several bibliographies were identified which have some bearing on certain facets of this general area, no success was realized in locating a compendium which focused specifically on this problem. This is rather surprising considering the magnitude and significance of the worker adjustment problems of youth in contemporary American society. This led to the decision that a collection of abstracts which would be of interest to both researchers and practitioners was warranted.

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[13] President Lyndon B. Johnson in an address given April 27, 1967, at a dedication ceremony for a new vocational-technical department at Crossland High School, Camp Springs, Maryland.

[14] The Center for Vocational and Technical Education is presently involved in a series of studies relating to this topic. A report entitled "Problems in the Transition from High School to Work as Perceived by Vocational Educators" will soon be available.

This initial annotated bibliography on the worker adjustment problems of youth should help to fill a void in the literature. It is hoped this endeavor will stimulate intensive and extensive codifying and synthesizing of existent data, as well as lead to more systematic and comprehensive research and applied efforts.

SELECTION GUIDELINES

A key guideline employed in the development of this bibliography was that the identified sources should have some applicability to the worker adjustment problems faced by youth (16 to 25 years old) making the transition from school to work. Since the relevant literature reflects the extensive scope and diverse nature of the problem area to which it pertains, the resultant annotations range in many directions and may appear to represent a peculiar combination of selections. These characteristics were compounded by the expressed purpose to compile a collection of abstracts which has some utility to various potential user populations.

The task of assembling this bibliography was facilitated by the decision to eliminate most of the literature for which bibliographies and/or summaries were already available. This included material focusing on such topics as job satisfaction,[15] automation,[16] school dropouts,[17] occupational choice, aspirations and expectations,[18] sociological studies of occupations,[19] and studies on vocational rehabilitation.[20] However, certain sources were included in order to provide the reader with an overview of these subjects.

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[15] Beginning in 1946, there have been a series of articles appearing periodically in the Personnel and Guidance Journal which have summarized the results of all published researches on job satisfaction.

[16] Two of the best earlier bibliographies on automation were compiled by personnel at the Labor and Industrial Relations Center, Michigan State University. Gloria Cheek, Economic and Social Implications of Automation: A Bibliographic Review, Volume I Literature Before 1957. East Lansing: Labor and Industrial Relations Center, Michigan State University, 1961; and Einar Hardin, William B. Eddy, and Steven E. Deutsch, Economic and Social Implications of Automation: An Annotated Bibliography, Volume 2 Literature 1957-1960. East Lansing: Labor and Industrial Relations Center, Michigan State University, 1961.

[17] Several bibliographical sources on school dropouts are available. For an excellent source, see: S. M. Miller, Betty L. Saleem, and Herrington Bryce, School Dropouts: A Commentary and Annotated Bibliography. Syracuse: Youth Development Center, Syracuse University, 1964.

[18] Following are some of the bibliographies pertaining to this problem area: William P. Kuvlesky and George W. Ohlendorf, A Bibliography of Literature on Occupational Aspirations and Expectations. Texas A & M

The abstracted literature is limited to the period extending from 1960 to the present. With the exception of four unpublished doctoral studies, only published materials were annotated; all the sources were available in the English language. A majority of the publications abstracted were located in The Ohio State University Libraries; a few were secured through ERIC, inter-library loans, and personal correspondence with authors.

The number of annotative entries was further restricted to those abstracts which, in our judgment, reported information which could be fruitfully used by a variety of potential users. Although, in some instances the contributions may be limited to a unique and promising idea, or the utilization of a research technique which showed some promise, in general, the reported annotations were judged to be among the best available in the recent literature.

University, Department of Agricultural Economics and Sociology, Departmental Information Report 66-1, August, 1965; William P. Kuvlesky and George W. Ohlendorf, A Bibliography of Literature on Educational Orientations of Youth. Texas A & M University, Department of Agricultural Economics and Sociology, Information Report 66-7, November, 1965; William P. Kuvlesky and George W. Ohlendorf, Occupational Aspirations and Expectations: A Bibliography of Research Literature. Texas A & M University, Department of Agricultural Economics and Sociology, Information Report 66-1, June, 1966; William P. Kuvlesky and John Pelham, Occupational Status Orientations of Rural Youth: Structured Annotations and Evaluations of the Recent Literature. Texas A & M University, Department of Agricultural Economics and Sociology, Departmental Technical Report, 66-3, September, 1966; Benton Johnson, et al., Religion and Occupational Behavior: An Annotated Bibliography. Eugene, Oregon: Center for Research in Occupational Planning, University of Oregon, 1966; and R. Brooke Jacobsen, et al., The Family and Occupational Choice: An Annotated Bibliography. Eugene, Oregon: Center for Research in Occupational Planning, University of Oregon, 1966.

[19] A bibliography of 796 sociological studies of occupations has been prepared by Robert P. Overs and Elizabeth C. Deutsch. See their publication entitled Sociological Studies of Occupations: A Bibliography. Washington, D. C.: Office of Manpower, Automation and Training, U. S. Department of Labor, 1965. (Mimeographed.). One-hundred of these sources have been abstracted by the two authors and are found in Abstracts of Sociological Studies of Occupations. Washington, D. C.: Office of Manpower, Automation and Training, U. S. Department of Labor, 1965. (Mimeographed)

[20] During the past seven years, the Industrial Relations Center of the

In addition to books and other miscellaneous sources published since 1960, an extensive examination of the journal literature was pursued; approximately 70 journals were culled for relevant articles. The results of the survey yielded 165 annotations for this bibliography. There are 23 abstracts of books or monographs; more than three-fourths of the selections are articles found in approximately 50 different professional journals.

The selection criteria suggested above resulted in the exclusion of numerous important sources, especially many sociologically-oriented contributions. Nevertheless, one major conclusion can be drawn from an examination of the annotated abstracts: relatively little is known concerning the transition from school to work and what can be done to effectively assist youth involved in this transition. The annotated bibliography presented in this report amplifies the fact that additional research efforts pertinent to the transition of youth from school to work are essential.

ABSTRACTING FORMAT

Each empirical study was abstracted in a systematic manner. Subsequent to the presentation of the bibliographic citation, the body of the abstract was divided into three paragraphs. The initial paragraph contains information relating to the research problem and/or purpose(s) for which the study was undertaken. If hypotheses were tested, they were also specified. The second paragraph summarizes details pertaining to the research methodology, including sample selection, size, characteristics, a description of the basic data-gathering instruments and the statistical techniques employed in the data analysis. The third paragraph focuses primarily on the research findings.

The non-empirical sources are annotated in a single paragraph which appears after each bibliographic citation. An attempt was made to present a general summary of the relevant ideas.

For those articles or reports of limited length, the annotations are intended to be precise; each is thought to be meaningful in itself. It was not always possible to realize this goal for publications of excessive length, such as books and monographs, although these abstracts do reflect the thesis or topics presented and should be useful for ready reference. It is hoped the abstracts do not distort or misrepresent the authors' intentions, but rather that they serve as a helpful guide *for* those who *might* benefit from exposure to them.

University of Minnesota has been involved in several studies on vocational rehabilitation. These have been summarized in a recent publication by Ellen Betz, et al., *Seven Years of Research on Work Adjustment*, Bulletin 43. Industrial Relations Center, University of Minnesota, February, 1966.

ORGANIZATION OF REPORT

Each of the next two sections of this report describes an index which should facilitate the selected use of the abstracts. The first section discusses the "user index." Based on evaluations by a panel of judges, ascertaining the user populations who would most likely be interested in and benefit from reading particular abstracts, each item was classified in terms of a variety of potential user population categories. The second section is a discussion on the "topic index." The "topic index" constitutes an attempt to expedite the identification of abstracts for those readers interested in reading materials focusing on specific aspects of the worker adjustment problem.

The 165 annotated abstracts follow the descriptive indices. They have been alphabetized according to each individual author's surname. An index number has been assigned to each abstract which corresponds to its serial position in the alphabetized ordering. The final section is a bibliographical listing containing the names of the authors, the titles of the publications, and the abstract number assigned to each publication.

2

USER INDEX

The diversity of the nature and intended purposes of the publications included in this bibliography suggested the development of what has been termed a "user index." This index will facilitate the selective use of the abstracts on the part of individuals basically interested in reading those selections judged to be most directly related to their interests and work activities.

The index consists of abstract numbers, and six user population categories--researchers, guidance personnel, teachers, school administrators, work managers, and "general interest." All the categories are self-explanatory, with the possible exception of work managers and "general interest." The category of work managers refers to persons involved in the supervision of others, regardless of the level they occupy in the hierarchical structure of an organization. The "general interest" category encompasses three or more of the specified population categories and perhaps other groups that are not listed (e.g., local governments and union officials). The abstracts are alphabetized according to the author's last name, and a number designation from 1 to 165, has been assigned to each one.

The procedure in using the index is self-evident. Initially, the reader should determine to which user population category(ies) he belongs. By noting the X's placed in the user column(s) and the abstract numbers listed in the first column, the individual sources which should be of greatest interest to the reader will be identified.

The evaluations of the abstracts as to user categories represent a fairly high consensus of opinion among three judges. It must be realized, however, that some of the assignments were purely arbitrary.

USER INDEX

	USER POPULATION CATEGORIES					
Abstract Number	Research Personnel	Guidance Personnel	Teachers	School Admin.	Work Managers	General Interest
1	X				X	
2		X				
3	X				X	
4						X
5	X				X	
6	X					
7						X
8					X	
9				X		
10	X					
11	X					
12						X
13		X				X
14	X				X	
15				X		
16	X					
17						X
18			X	X		
19						X
20		X				
21	X					
22						X
23			X	X		
24		X		X		
25						X
26		X			X	
27						X
28			X			
29	X				X	
30						X
31		X	X			
32	X					
Abstract Number	Research Personnel	Guidance Personnel	Teachers	School Admin.	Work Manager	General Interest
33				X		
34		X				
35		X				
36	X					
37			X			
38	X					
39	X				X	
40						X
41	X				X	
42	X					
43	X					
44	X					
45						X
46				X		
47					X	
48	X				X	
49		X				
50						X
51						X
52					X	
53					X	
54		X				
55						X
56						X
57	X					
58	X					
59		X				
60	X					
61	X					
62				X		
63		X		X		
64	X					

USER INDEX

	USER POPULATION CATEGORIES					
Abstract Number	Research Personnel	Guidance Personnel	Teachers	School Admin.	Work Managers	General Interest
65					X	
66						X
67						X
68	X					
69	X				X	
70						X
71	X				X	
72	X					
73		X				
74						X
75					X	
76	X				X	
77						X
78	X			X		
79						X
80				X		
81						X
82					X	
83		X		X		
84		X				
85					X	
86	X				X	
87	X				X	
88	X					
89			X	X		
90	X					
91	X				X	
92	X				X	
93		X			X	
94	X					
95	X				X	
96		X	X			
97	X	X				
98		X		X		
99	X					
100					X	
101		X			X	
102					X	
103						X
104		X		X		
105	X					
106	X	X				
107		X			X	
108					X	
109			X	X		
110	X	X				
111	X				X	
112	X				X	
113	X				X	
114						X
115				X		
116	X				X	
117					X	
118		X		X		
119	X				X	
120						X
121		X	X			
122	X			X		
123	X				X	
124					X	
125						X
126						X
127			X			
128		X	X			

USER INDEX

USER POPULATION CATEGORIES

Abstract Number	Research Personnel	Guidance Personnel	Teachers	School Admin.	Work Managers	General Interest
129			X			
130		X			X	
131						X
132					X	
133	X				X	
134	X					
135	X				X	
136						X
137						X
138						X
139		X		X		
140			X			
141		X			X	
142						X
143	X	X				
144	X				X	
145				X		
146		X				
147						X

Abstract Number	Research Personnel	Guidance Personnel	Teachers	School Admin.	Work Manager	General Interest
148						X
149						X
150						X
151	X					
152	X				X	
153	X				X	
154	X					
155						X
156						X
157	X					
158	X				X	
159		X	X			
160		X	X			
161						X
162		X		X		
163		X		X		
164	X				X	
165	X	X				

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TOPIC INDEX

A "topic index" was developed to assist the reader in the identification of abstracts which relate most directly to specific facets of the general area of worker adjustment problems as they pertain to youth. Each abstract was examined to determine the general level of analysis--individual, community, school transition, and work environment. These levels, with the addition of a methodology and theoretical section, constitute the five major broad categories into which the "topic index" is divided. Under each of these categories, topics, sub-topics, and further breakdowns are listed which describe certain aspects of the general problem area. These are, in turn, arranged alphabetically.

The use of the index is accomplished by identifying the topic of prime importance to the user. Under a particular topic, or sub-topic, is a listing of numbers specifying abstracts which have been arranged in numerical order in the annotated abstract section. Although the assignment of abstracts to the appropriate categorical levels and topical headings was performed after ascertaining the particular emphasis of each publication, this was quite difficult to do for certain items, and some of the assignments were done rather arbitrarily. Some numbers are associated with many variables. This is to be interpreted by the user as an abstract that is pertinent to a variety of topic areas.

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ANNOTATED ABSTRACTS

1. Adam, J. Stacy and Patricia Jacobsen. "Effects of Wage Inequities on Work Quality," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 69 (July, 1964), pp. 19-25.

Previous studies of the relationship between perceived wage inequities and productivity and work quality derived predictions from dissonance theory. That is, if a person perceived that he received more pay than another for the same work, he would experience dissonance and try to improve his work. The authors suggest that what might be experienced is really a feeling of job insecurity. This experiment was done to determine which theory was operative.

The sample consisted of 60 male students at Columbia University who answered an advertisement for part-time summer employment. Each was told initially that the job consisted of proof-reading at the rate of $.30 per page. When the subjects reported for work they were placed into three equal sized groups. They were then given a regular employment application and the Ohio Test of Proof-Reading Aptitude. Based upon the application and the Ohio Test, the three groups tested for dissonance were told respectively they were unqualified but would be paid at the going rate, or they would be paid at a reduced rate, or they were qualified for the rate of pay. Those tested for job security were told that further work would depend upon performance. Subjects worked only one hour and then were told about the experiment. The productivity of the groups was compared.

The data supported only the dissonance theory, and the subjects in the High Dissonance Group produced the best quality work.

2. Amos, William. "Job Adjustment Problems of Delinquent Minority Group Youth," Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 13 (Winter, 1964-65), pp. 87-90.

The central concern of this article was to explore the problems of job adjustment experienced by a small group of Negro youth.

A total of 30 boys (ages 16 to 18) with average scores on educational tests at the fifth-grade level comprised the sample. The boys had been institutionalized for having committed delinquent acts and were released on the promises of jobs.

In the pre-release interviews, 27 of the boys indicated they had given no thought to the kind of job they could really perform. Most of them expressed unrealistic job preferences and the main reason given for working related to satisfying immediate material wants. Follow-up interviews showed the boys had entered low-level, unskilled jobs (e.g., bus boys, car wash, etc.). Eleven of the boys quit their jobs within a week; none stayed longer than three months. The reasons for leaving given by the boys and employers were extremely divergent. The boys usually said the job was too difficult and the boss "rode" them; the employers indicated the boys were often absent from work, tardy, unreliable, lazy, or stole. The basic problem facing these youth was not in finding a job, but in adjusting to and retaining a job. The paper stressed that because many boys cannot accept responsibility and adjust to supervision, there is a need for counseling a boy while he is on the job.

3. Argyris, Chris. "Individual Actualization in Complex Organizations," Mental Health, 44 (April, 1960), pp. 226-237.

As part of a larger study of individual mental health problems, this study explored the relationship between degree of self-actualization and situational characteristics in a manufacturing plant. On the assumption that mental health is related to opportunity for self-expression in work, the hypothesis tested was that since highly skilled employees tend to have greater opportunity for self-actualization they will tend to have a healthier mental outlook and this, in turn, should lead to more mature behavior.

On-the-job, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 34 high-skilled and 90 low-skilled workers in an industrial plant characterized by low absenteeism, lack of pressure, good production, good pay, and other favorable work indications.

Low-skill employees did not have a lower degree of self-actualization than high-skill; both groups were the same. However, it was found that the degree of interpersonal relationships in the plant was very low, and seemed to carry over into life outside since employees reported a low degree of participation in associations and community affairs. Both groups reported satisfaction with their jobs. They did not want interpersonal relations with co-workers, wanted to be let alone by their supervisors, and wished to remain uninvolved in the goals and management of the organization. This attitude was interpreted as apathy and indifference leading to alienation from both work and outside life as produced by the employee system of the plant and the influence of industrial organization in general. This degree of alienation could have long term effects upon both individual and industrial mental health.

4. Baer, M. F. "Employment and Unemployment of Teenagers," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 43 (June, 1965), p. 68.

According to the Department of Labor, there were 6.5 million 14-19 year olds in the labor force in 1964, with close to one million of them (14.7%) unemployed each month. The teenage unemployment rate is thus higher than that of any other age group in the labor force. Two basic reasons account for this problem: (1) the kinds of jobs usually available for inexperienced young workers have been increasing at a slower rate than other jobs; and (2) there are now more youthful applicants applying for the same number of jobs because of the war and post-war "baby boom." In 1970, the United States labor force is expected to increase by 9 million over that in 1964, and of that increase, over one-half will be under 25.

5. Baldamus, Wilhelm. Efficiency and Effort. London: Tavistock, 1961.

An analysis of industrial administration in terms of efficiency and effort on the basis of fundamentally opposed interests of management and labor revealed the main problem to be the distribution of earned income between management and workers. One of the factors governing this was that of occupational costs, that is the value of an occupation in terms of the cost of obtaining the necessary skills. The second, and more important factor, was the administrative process by which management controls the efficiency of labor, supervision, method of payment, production methods, etc. These can be analyzed into stability and intensity controls. Deprivation was found in industrial work, and studies of job satisfaction were largely illusory. These satisfactions were often substitute goals or rationalizations that were a function of deprivation and not a component of effort. In assessing effort, deprivational elements such as tedium, fatigue and weariness must be considered. Previous studies have shown that feelings of obligations to work were often supported by moral attitudes from childhood and the environment and related to class origin and social status. These attitudes act as a powerful factor on stability in work effort. According to the author, a still more powerful factor was the standardization of effort, that is, fairly rigid standards of what was expected of the worker and his relationship to wages.

This interlocking of standardized effort and wage expectations or effort value comes into conflict with change, resulting in wage-effort parity or disparity. The worker is interested in achieving parity; management, in marginal disparity. The more strongly work obligations are institutionalized, the greater management's chance of maintaining disparity without strife. In the short run, it is the size of the effort value which causes conflict between employer and employee.

6. Baldwin, Thomas. "The Relationships Among Personality, Cognitive, and Job Performance Variables," Dissertation Abstracts, 21 (1961), p. 3171.

The basic thesis of this publication was that some aspects of job performance were better measured by cognitive variables, while others were better measured by personality variables.

The study was based on 62 recent college graduates in the employ of a large industrial organization. All new employees were required to take the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey, the Allport-Vernon Study of Values, and the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. At the end of the initial year of employment, supervisory ratings were obtained on a 15-item rating scale.

Factor analysis of all personality, cognitive, and job performance variables, plus sex and a stay-leave criterion, yielded 25 factors, of which 15 were interpretable. The 15 factors were rater bias, general intelligence, general adjustment, sex, social aggressiveness, visual relationships, religious interest, reflective thinking, written language aptitude, sociability, economic motivation, level of activity, verbal ability, technical proficiency, and interpersonal relations. Relationships were found between the following: economic motivation and industriousness; interpersonal adjustment and working with others; social aggressiveness and memory for details; written language aptitude and ability to work with others; and visual relationships and religious interests, all of which had some relationship to staying on the job.

7. Balthaser, R. D. "Are We Educating Square Pegs for Round Holes?," Balance Sheet, 41 (January, 1960), pp. 196-198.

This article contained a proposal that Ohio should provide, within its educational system, post-high school technical and vocational training. Since only 20 percent of high school graduates go to college, it is necessary to provide job training for the 80 percent who do not. There is a growing need for skilled labor, particularly office technicians. The problem facing educators is whether they are meeting modern demands, and whether the state must provide for the total educational needs of its youth.

8. Berton, Lee. "Why Did You Quit?," Wall Street Journal, 167 (June 17, 1966), pp. 1+.

Exit interviews are coming into use in many companies in order to ascertain why employees quit. They are helping companies to detect and correct internal company problems which are causing an increasing number of employees to quit their jobs. According to surveys made by the National Industrial Conference Board, eight out of ten large companies are currently using some form of these interviews. Spurring this rising interest is the present scarcity of experienced workers. It is felt these interviews will not only prevent losses of experienced personnel, but also prevent companies from losing their trainees after their training period has terminated. As a result, companies are also managing to keep employees they might otherwise have fired (i.e., they salvage people by paying attention to their actual job preferences). Some firms, however, will not use this method because they feel that employees will not be truthful about their reasons for quitting and they might try to cause trouble for imaginary wrongs inflicted upon them by supervisors. However, methods are currently being tested to break down such reticence and elicit honest answers from the quitting workers (e.g., sending them questionnaires 30 to 60 days after they have left the company when their resistance to answering has been diminished by the time lapse).

9. Bienenstok, Theodore and William Sayres. STEP: School to Employment Program: An Appraisal. New York: University of the State of New York, August, 1964.

The major concern of STEP is to help those pupils who are 15 years of age or older and are prospective dropouts make a normal adjustment to the adult world through appropriate education and work experience. This program should enable them to secure full-time employment if they decide to leave school after becoming of legal age. Hopefully, it will motivate some to return to a regular school program leading to a high school diploma. There are two phases to STEP: (1) the study phase combines regular academic and vocational studies with special orientation meetings which are concerned with the labor market; and (2) the job phase consists of paid, school-supervised, part-time work experience.

10. Blai, Boris. "An Occupational Study of Job and Need Satisfaction," Psychological Reports, 14 (February, 1964), pp. 81-82.

This study examined Maslow's proposed hierarchy of motivations to evaluate the suitability of a questionnaire for estimating job satisfaction from measures of need satisfaction.

The sample consisted of 470 subjects representing professional, managerial-official, clerical, services, and trades-manual. The questionnaire measured degrees of need satisfaction for 14 needs, from which the subject selected three, ranking them in order of importance. The weighted scores for each need, by five occupational groups, were correlated with the measures of job satisfaction.

The needs of self-actualization, advancement, interesting duties, and leadership were selected with decreasing frequency from the "professionals" to the "trades" group. Respect, money, job security, and congeniality were selected more frequently by the "trades" and "service" groups, and least often by the "managerial-offici-l and professional" groups.

11. Blauner, Robert. "Work Satisfaction and Industrial Trends in Modern Society," in Walter Galenson and S. M. Lipset (eds.). Labor and Trade Unionism. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1960, pp. 339-356.

The theoretical interest of this paper is concerned with the differences in job satisfaction between occupations and the preconditions of workers' satisfaction with their jobs. The author's approach was to re-examine data gathered in selected previous studies on this subject. Past studies showed that a majority of the workers were actually satisfied with their present jobs, but that this satisfaction was unevenly distributed throughout the occupational structure, from a very low percent for unskilled laborers to very high for professional groups. Blauner emphasized that the term job satisfaction was difficult to assess by direct approach, but preference for a job other than the one held and retirement prospects were found to be sound indicators of job satisfaction. Cultural expectations for different types of occupations varied considerably. Professionals were expected to have an intrinsic interest in their job, white-collar workers to be company oriented, and almost nothing was expected from the factory worker. Traditional indices of job satisfaction, such as income, working conditions, etc., were found to be too arbitrary. The four major factors which seemed to have the most influence on job satisfaction were presented. The major factor, occupational prestige, was directly related to skill, education, and the training necessary for that particular job. Occupations were ranked according to those bases which were directly related to the worker's perceptions of that job. The objective aspects of the job might be undesirable, but this was often neglected in judging occupational prestige. Control was the second factor. Cultural values in America have caused men to desire to be "masters of their destiny." The greater the degree of control a worker has over his physical movement, pace of work, environment (technical and social), and freedom from hierarchical authority, the greater his job satisfaction. Control was often a more important factor in job satisfaction than occupational prestige in such cases as assembly line workers, who were alienated, had no control over the pace of their movement, and had a very limited technical environment. Approximately eight percent of assembly line workers were satisfied with their present job. They had almost no challenge in their work operation. In contrast to these workers, the railroad men, almost completely freed from close supervision, found their work challenging, their job satisfaction rating placed second only to the professionals. A third factor in job satisfaction is the degree of integration characteristics of work groups. Individual, monotonous, uncreative work is very unsatisfactory as opposed to the teamwork of a small closely knit group. Other studies have shown the informal work group to be the most important factor in job satisfaction, while neglecting the intrinsic nature of the job task itself. Off-the-job worker relationships (occupational communities) are also important in job satisfaction. The solidarity of the work group inculcates devotion to the occupation, reinforces the prestige of the job, and isolates the group from the general view held by society of their occupation. These occupational communities in which "shop talk" prevails and work and leisure time are highly integrated, seem to be prevalent in small mining communities while almost absent among factory workers in the cities. Blauner concluded that work in itself has a significant positive meaning. This is a product of the Protestant Ethic prevailing in our culture. The main problem is not that there are so many alienated assembly workers, but that, because of education and democratic ideals and the emphasis on individualism and occupational mobility, people are feeling a need to find more creative and challenging work.

12. Bond, Edward L., Jr. "American Youth: Why They Avoid Involvement with Business," Public Relations Journal, 22 (May, 1966), pp. 8-11.

This study presented data on the attitudes of young white-collar people toward business and businessmen, their vocational and economic goals, and their interests, feelings, and philosophy regarding the free enterprise system.

The samples were composed of high school, middle-class teenagers, and unmarried, middle-class adults ages 20-25. Depth interviews were conducted in Boston, Chicago, and Los Angeles.

A majority of the interviewees felt that business was concerned with the welfare of the country, but for its own selfish reasons. The teenagers believed that businessmen were dull and narrow and that, as a career, business was confining and lacking in opportunities for self-expression. The young adults did not reject business ideals, because many were already in the business world, but they did express discontent though resigned to the fact that they would probably stay in their present field. These youth seemed to want to avoid involvement with business. Their concern was not for money, but for security and leisure. It was the opinion of the author that schools were giving teenagers as much instruction about business as they would take, but young people did not seem to be interested. The author suggested that serious thought should be given to the problem of attracting more young white-collar people to the managerial ranks.

13. Bozan, F. A. "Employment of High School Graduates and Dropouts in 1964," Monthly Labor Review, 88 (June, 1965), pp. 637-643.

The need for preparing young people for jobs is shown by the rising unemployment rates for youth in spite of increasing prosperity in the general economy. Since 1959, there has been a yearly increase in the number of high school graduates, with a corresponding decrease in dropouts; a change from 6 out of 10 being dropouts in 1959, to 4 out of 10 in 1964. Although the unemployment rate for graduates was nearly as low as the general rate, that for dropouts was high. The majority of dropouts were 16 and 17 years old. Slightly over one-half were females. Nonwhite youth comprised a disproportionate share of the dropout rate. Joblessness was inversely related to age. Only 77 percent of male dropouts were in the labor force. Graduates were also more likely to seek training for better jobs. Manpower programs for training youth can be particularly helpful to the nonwhite. Graduates were better paid. Male graduates were more apt to have white-collar jobs. Dropouts were operatives, construction workers, or farm hands. Women graduates had clerical jobs or worked in service industries, while dropouts were more likely to be operatives or domestic workers. Nonwhite graduates and dropouts were more likely than whites to be in the least skilled and lowest paying jobs. A much greater proportion of dropouts than graduates lived in families with incomes below the poverty level. For both graduates and dropouts, low incomes were more prevalent in nonwhite families.

14. Branson, Bernard D. "Anxiety, Discrimination, and Self-Ideal Discrepancy," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 38 (January, 1960), pp. 373-377.

This research explored the relationships among extent of anxiety, complex task of discrimination and self-ideal discrepancy. The hypotheses tested were: (1) the High Anxious group would show no more self-ideal discrepancy than a Middle Anxious group but would make poorer choices and more mistakes on a complex task of discrimination; (2) the Middle Anxious group would show a larger self-ideal discrepancy compared to a Low Anxious group, but would be no less discriminating than the Low Anxious group on the complex judging test; and (3) the Low Anxious group would show less self-ideal discrepancy compared to the High Anxious and would also do better on the complex task of judgment.

Anxiety groups were chosen on the basis of scores on the Taylor Anxiety Scale. The subjects were 122 graduate and undergraduate education students (35 males and 87 females). Self-concept was defined as the mean score in response to the statements on the Secord and Jourard Self-Concept Test. The ideal was determined by the answer to a question; the discrepancy score was the difference between the ideal and the concept. The Minnesota Paper Form Board was used to test the results of anxiety on an impersonal complex task.

The self-ideal discrepancy of the High Anxiety group was significantly greater than that of the Low Anxious but was not significantly different from the Middle Anxious. The self-ideal discrepancy of the Middle group was not significantly different from that of the Low group. The performance of the High group on the Minnesota Paper Form Board was not significantly different from the performance of the Middle group, but the results of the High and Middle groups were significantly poorer than the Low. The general conclusion suggested that discrimination in complex tasks begins to show impairment at levels of Moderate Anxiety.

15. Brooks, T. R. "Blue Collar Elite: Changing Technology of the Modern Factory Calls for New Skills," Management Review, 53 (April, 1964), pp. 28-34.

Technological changes are forcing blue-collar workers to become highly skilled specialists who are, at the same time, adaptable and versatile. One result of this transformation is an increase in individual initiative among factory workers. As blue-collar workers gain more skills, a corresponding increase in job-related education must occur. Management must realize that the development of a new blue-collar elite will require greater alertness to their training needs because, as the demand for the new skills increases, management is often forced to turn inward for the people needed.

16. Brown, Alan W. and Henry A. Landsberger. "The Sense of Responsibility Among Young Workers," Occupational Psychology, 34 (January, 1960), pp. 1-14 and 34 (February, 1960), pp. 73-85.

The authors attempted to answer the following questions: Can responsibility be conceptually defined and statistically measured reliably and distinctly, and with what other measures is it correlated?

The subjects were young workers, 63 men and 36 women, and their supervisors, from 18 stores in the Syracuse, New York division of a chain. There were from 3 to 13 subjects in a store, and statistically each store was considered separately. Interviews with supervisors on behavior of a responsible employee produced three categories of the concept--initiative, reliability and sociability. These were checked by independent judges and a scale was constructed on which supervisors rated their employees. Eighty supervisors at the store level and 31 district supervisors also rated the importance of the items in terms of the concept of responsibility. Employees were given the Gordan Personal Profile plus a specially constructed questionnaire to measure the correlates of responsibility.

The three categories in the concept of responsibility exhausted the concept. The store and district supervisors attached high importance to all three, but agreed that reliability was most important. District supervisors gave second place to initiative, while store supervisors accorded this ranking to sociability. Responsibility was a unitary trait since a person high in one category was also high in the other two. The fairly good correlation with the Gordan Personal Profile items on responsibility indicated that this measured responsibility and that responsible behavior at work was partly stable over time and situation. There was some evidence, although ambiguous, of the superiority of workers from a rural background. Definite sex differences were found, but the number of women was small and they had no opportunity for advancement. In studying the correlates of responsibility, only young men were used. It was found that school achievement and socio-economic background were related to responsibility, with the former being the predictor. When socio-economic background was not related to school achievement it was not related to responsibility. Responsibility was associated with aspirations, as well as with length of service, but length of services was related to responsibility only because of its association with aspirations. High aspirations were somewhat related to job satisfaction and not at all with emotional and family adjustment factors, nor did these latter correlate with responsibility. In this particular situation the men who remained were probably those who were ambitious and satisfied with their job and its prospects.

17. Burchinal, Lee (ed.). Rural Youth in Crisis: Facts, Myths, and Social Change. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1965.

Concern for the problems of rural as well as urban youth led to the development of this book. Both groups have common, core problems concerned mainly with developmental tasks, decisions related to education, occupations, marital, residential, and social choices. Their decisions must be reached during periods of rapid social change and increased technological demands. Many rural youth are seriously disadvantaged socially, economically, and educationally, and these problems become compounded because this group fails to receive the training necessary for becoming citizens in an urban society. Therefore, migration is a central area for discussion because only a small proportion resume farm careers. The remainder are attracted to large metropolitan areas where they lack the fundamentals for adequate adjustment to and development of a satisfactory, meaningful life. Even the youth who remain in their home environments face problems due to lack of community resources. The belief that modern communication and transportation have bridged the rural-urban gap, leading to interchange of ideas, causing the elimination of psychological and social differences, and the assumption that rural youth are more resourceful, industrious, and have superior citizenship, have been proven false in previous researches. This book is a comprehensive collection of information, interpretation of characteristics of rural youth, and suggestions for ways of improving services and facilities in rural communities to help rural youth assume adult roles.

18. Calvert, Robert, Edward M. Carter, and Ione Murphy. "College Courses in Occupational Adjustments," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 42 (March, 1964), pp. 680-682.

The purpose of this study was to identify and analyze credit courses, offered by two and four year colleges in this country, which were directly concerned with facilitating occupational adjustment.

A questionnaire was used to gather data primarily pertaining to the title and content of the occupational adjustment courses. Of the 1,850 institutions that received questionnaires, a total of 1,023 responded (55.3%).

Among the responding colleges, 70 offered courses in occupational adjustment. There were four general types of courses: vocational selection or career planning, introduction to the world of work, job-seeking techniques, and adjustment to careers. Public schools were more likely to have such courses than private colleges, and junior colleges more likely than four year institutions. Frequently, the courses were volunteered by an instructor, rather than established as a permanent part of the curriculum, and were dropped when he left.

19. Carter, Michael. Home, School and Work. New York: Macmillan Company, 1962.

In England, most children receive a modern secondary education and leave school at the age of fifteen to enter the labor force. What did school mean to them, what attitudes do they have toward work, how do they adjust to work, how suited are they to their jobs, and what is their attitude toward life? This qualitative study of young people, during their first post-school year, attempted to answer these questions.

One hundred boys and 100 girls from five schools in Sheffield, England were interviewed on three occasions, once before leaving school and twice afterwards. Most of them were from working-class and lower-middle-class homes. Teachers, employers, parents, relatives, and friends were also interviewed, but not systematically.

The findings indicated that the schools have largely failed to meet the needs of these children; schools all differed in their programs, methods, and rapport with the people in the areas served. Some children liked school and felt they had learned; others attended because it was required. The majority were looking forward to the end of school and the start of work. The home was fundamental in affecting the choice of work. Its general atmosphere oriented children towards particular levels of employment, and the outlook of employed people in the home environment affected attitudes toward work. The school had influenced only a small number of children with work visits, career evenings, teachers' advice, exhibitions, and literature. The Youth Employment Office gave a talk to children before they left school, but this had only a marginal effect. Some apprenticeships were good and provided valuable training, while others were too long for the skills to be learned, or were of poor quality and taught relatively little. Problems were related to long hours, not always being accepted by other workers, and learning the ways of the boss and the work group. Most problems had to do with adjusting to a particular work situation, not to the work world. While a number of children attended evening or day release classes during their first year of work, some did so only because their employer required it. There was a high dropout rate. Trade unions took an official interest in the young people, but actual entry was rarely welcomed by union members. The author concluded that life is complex and that social research raises more questions than it answers. The study did not find any serious gap between school and work, but did show a wide gap between the way ordinary people approach school, work, and life and the ways of specialists and educators.

20. Carter, Michael. Into Work. Baltimore: Penguin Books, 1966.

Inequalities in the British educational system particularly affect children of lower-class groups. These inequalities are perpetuated and reinforced as these youth enter the world of work, generally in positions of a semi-skilled or unskilled nature. The nation's failure to provide adequate opportunities for its school-leavers has repercussions for both its economic and social well-being. Neither benevolent intent nor zeal in educational reform can take the place of sophisticated planning in meeting the demands of social and economic changes. Using research studies, reports, his own knowledge of the realities of the problems, and various local and governmental efforts to solve them, the author discussed various aspects of the transition from school to work. In England, children are selected by tests at the age of eleven for selective or technical schools. Space is limited in these schools, preventing some able children from attending. All others attend secondary modern schools from which most leave at the age of fifteen. The type of school attended definitely limits vocational aspirations and opportunities. Job aspirations are also influenced by home and social background, by the school, and the Youth Employment Office. Children find jobs in many ways--through the Youth Employment Office, through influence, through information from family, friends, neighbors, and through chance calls at factories or shops. Reactions to work vary from happiness at finding a job that allows one to learn a skill or develop one's interest, to dejection and cynicism at frustrated ambition. Many children are apathetic to school and work. Leisure activities and worker status are important. The inadequacies of the apprenticeship systems, opportunities for further industrial and educational training, and current provisions and proposals for meeting these needs were also discussed. The final chapter considered broad educational aims in relation to future employment needs.

21. Centers, Richard and Daphne Bugental. "Intrinsic and Extrinsic Job Motivations Among Different Segments of the Working Population," Journal of Applied Psychology, 50 (June, 1966), pp. 193-197.

This study predicted that individuals at higher occupational levels would place a greater value on intrinsic job factors, while those at lower occupational levels would place a greater value on extrinsic factors. Included as intrinsic sources of job satisfaction were self-expression, interest-value, and feeling of satisfaction derived from the work itself. The extrinsic sources were pay, security, and satisfying co-workers.

Data were secured through interviews with 692 employed adults representing various job levels. A standard interview schedule was followed.

In general, the expectations were confirmed. White-collar workers consistently placed a greater value on intrinsic sources of job satisfaction, and blue-collar workers on extrinsic considerations. Clerical or sales workers and skilled workers were similar in job motivations. The biggest shift in values was between professional-managerial and clerical-sales personnel and between skilled and semi-skilled and unskilled workers. Security was the component which varied most in importance between occupational levels--moving from low importance in professional-managerial to high importance among semi-skilled and unskilled workers; pay was the most important job factor at all levels except professional-managerial. Men and women did not differ significantly, but men placed a higher value on self-expression, while women were more likely to value good co-workers.

22. Champagne, Joseph E. and Donald C. King. "Job Satisfaction Factors Among Under-Privileged Workers," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 45 (January, 1967), pp. 429-434.

The purpose of this article was to extend the literature on job motivation and to answer relevant questions concerning the economic role of the under-privileged person.

The sample was composed of 513 trainees classified as under-privileged in an MDTA statewide project, STEP in South Carolina. A review of the literature suggested that 16 motivational factors should represent the primary areas to be investigated. Analysis was by a least squares solution for a complete paired-comparison schedule.

A hierarchy of job satisfaction among under-privileged workers was demonstrated. Subsamples of the population showed differences.

In all cases, intrinsic factors, i.e., duty and satisfaction, were ranked higher than such extrinsic factors as pay, praise, and respect. The fear of reprimand was low. It was concluded that fear-inducing management would not be successful with this group.

23. Childs, G. B. "Is the Work Ethic Realistic in the Age of Automation?," Phi Delta Kappa, 46 (April, 1965), pp. 370-375.

This article discussed the problem of maintaining the present work ethic as automation increases. The author cited various sources which showed there was a trend for the number of workers to be increasing while, at the same time, the number of jobs was decreasing. According to Childs, this problem would become more important and serious in the future and will reach the point where there will not be enough jobs even for those who were seriously seeking work. The author suggested that educators are responsible for resolving the problem, for they can afford to attack the work ethic. Educators must become familiar with the dimensions of the problem, readjusting vocational sights so that people will not continue to be trained for jobs which will be eliminated in the near future. The educational system must prepare people to live in a world where work will not be central in their lives. There will have to be more concern for developing people as humans and less on making them part of the economic system.

24. Clements, Hubert M. and Merritt C. Oelke. "Factors Related to Reported Problems of Adolescents," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 45 (March, 1967), pp. 697-702.

The purposes of this article were to identify common types of problems of high school adolescents and to determine the relationship of these to certain independent variables.

The subjects were 720 Georgia public high school students, selected at random within a pattern. Three groups of six schools each represented the sampling frames. The groups of high schools were located respectively in (1) the 16 counties with the greatest decrease in population; (2) the 16 with the greatest increase; and (3) the nine most stable counties. Participating in the study were 40 students, five girls and five boys from each of the four grades, selected from each of the 18 schools. The Mooney Problem Check List was used to identify problems; the 11 problem areas and the total number of problems were used as dependent variables. The relation of independent to dependent variables was initially tested by least squares analysis and by the Duncan Multiple Range Test, to determine the direction of significance.

Significant differences were found for 7 of the 14 independent variables. Students from the communities with increasing or decreasing populations reported more problems in the areas of Social-Psychological Relations and Adjustment to School Work. Boys reported a higher mean number of problems in the areas, the Future, and Vocational and Educational. Girls reported a significantly higher number in Health and Physical Development, Courtship, Sex, Marriage, Social-Psychological Relations, Personal-Psychological Relations, Curriculum, and Teaching Procedure. Statistically significant differences in Adjustment to School Work, Curriculum, and Teaching Procedure pinpointed the tenth grade as the time for problems in both of these areas. Students whose fathers had only an elementary school education had higher means for all problems combined and, more specifically, for the areas of Health and Physical Development, Finances, Living Conditions, Employment, Social and Recreational Activities, and Social-Psychological Relations. There was a lower incidence of problems in schools with a low teacher-pupil ratio. More problems were reported from schools without a counselor in all areas except Health and Physical Development. Students who expressed the greatest concern in the area of Morals and Religion, also most often expressed the desire to talk with someone about their problems. Implications were that the size of the school was influential, although the median size school, as well as students from rural non-farm school communities, reported more problems. Of no significance were age of students, father's occupational level, and family social position.

25. Cohen, Eli H. "The Employment Needs of Urban Youth," Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 10 (Winter, 1962), pp. 85-89.

This article discussed the problems of unemployed youth in this country whose unemployment rate is two to three times that of the national average. The writer suggests that what is needed is not the creation of more jobs per se, but the establishment of those types of work suitable for inexperienced youth. Two aspects of the problem identified are the lack of jobs, and the marginal employability of many youth. Job requirements are increasing as automation not only accentuates the trend toward higher levels of education, but also decreases the number of jobs available. Compared to high school graduates, dropouts suffer greater unemployment, take longer to find jobs, get poorer jobs, and earn less money. Minority group members are often excluded from training and employment opportunities. The problem promises to worsen. One solution is to keep young people in school longer and off the labor market. Some think the only other alternative is government work and training projects. Cohen stresses the important and functional aspects of this second alternative.

26. Dailey, William W. "After They're Hired, Then What?," Journal of College Placement, 23 (February, 1963), pp. 59-62.

Prior to the formulation of entry requirements and minimum standards for a work position, the job should be analyzed in depth. This is important because problems in turnover, conflict, low morale, and occupational stress can be lessened if the background of the employee tends to be congruent with the expectations of the work position. In-depth analysis should reveal the level of training, education, and type of personal qualities necessary. Most training programs provide orientation sessions, much of which can be obtained through actual experience. The training programs should have a purpose. Training should contain practical experience and application of theory. Is training designed as a transition program from school to work, or is career advancement being over-sold at the expense of opportunities for professional accomplishment? The recent graduate must adjust and form a working relationship with management practices, customs, experiences, and organizational politics. Many times, a new employee will be treated as a whipping boy by older employees or he may antagonize them by his perception of knowledge and self-importance and by his attempts to initiate spectacular changes overnight. Care must be taken that both old and new employees understand promotional policies. Management must properly prepare the staff for the personal and organizational implications of the staff change. It must be receptive to new ideas, evaluate proposed changes and supervision, and able to undertake a quality professional development program to help youthful employees understand and adjust to an established organizational pattern.

27. Dansereau, H. Kirk. "Work and the Teen-Ager," Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 338 (November, 1961), pp. 44-52.

Adult and adolescent differences in attitudes toward work partly result from age-grade differences characteristic of all cultures, but they are accentuated and prolonged by adult edict. Teenagers may recognize the values of work but they are often forbidden to enter the labor market. They may often use hobbies as a kind of work-play combination. The lack of work compels the teenager to stay in school, but if he should leave, many efforts are made to lure him back. Thus, entrance into the adult world is made difficult. If the teenager does enter the work world, he is discriminated against as to the kind of work available. The change from school to work often results in "culture shock," because of five contradictions in work values: (1) He must learn to accept responsibility but can't get a job that requires it. (2) He must work hard but this is not necessary today. (3) He must learn to get along with others but be aggressive to get ahead. (4) He must learn the value of money but no one gets rich by pinching pennies. (5) He must learn to hold a job but the way to get ahead is by moving around. Culture shock could be mitigated by suitable pre-employment socialization in which responsibility as well as mechanical skills would be recognized. It is possible that as the work week gets shorter, the adult culture will be organized around leisure rather than work. In this sense, the teenage emphasis on fun may be a functional prototype of the future adult culture.

28. Davidson, Helen, Frank Riessman and Edna Meyers. "Personality Characteristics Attributed to the Worker," Journal of Social Psychology, 57 (June, 1962), pp. 155-160.

This article hypothesized that persons in higher occupational categories would be rated more positively in personality characteristics than persons in the lower occupational groups.

Asch's technique for obtaining impressions of personality was adapted. The subjects were 241 under-graduate students, male and female. Their ages were 17-20 and their social class backgrounds varied. A check list of 30 personality characteristics was used to determine the stereotypes held by the students with regard to selected occupational groups. The five groups were: (1) factory owner, (2) factory worker, (3) assistant office manager, (4) teacher, and (5) physician.

Positive characteristics were distributed about equally among the factory owner, assistant office manager, teacher and physician. Factory workers had the lowest score, with more negative characteristics attributed to them than to any other group. Only in this group was there a totality of extreme responses. The findings suggested the students, many of whom were prospective teachers, psychologists, and social workers, had definite unfavorable images of the lower class. With regard to the school system, the consequences of the image of the worker are serious. Many of the difficulties in the educational system stem in part from the attitude of the teachers toward their pupils, the majority of whom are children of working-class parents.

29. Day, Robert and Robert Hamblin. "Some Effects of Close and Punitive Styles of Supervision," American Journal of Sociology, 69 (March, 1964), pp. 499-510.

The assumption was made that aggressive feelings were instigated by close supervision. "Close supervision" was conceptualized as one end of a continuum that described the degree to which the supervisor specified the role of the subordinates and checked up to see that they complied with specifications. "General supervision" fell about half-way between "close" and "anomic" (the other extreme); it involved a moderate amount of specifications and supervision, enough to let the workers know what they were supposed to do. "Close supervision" was also opposed to "punitive supervision." While "close" did not involve manifest intention to hurt or injure, but to raise production or efficiency, "punitive" involved intentional use of aggression in order to gain the compliance of the subordinates. The relationship between aggressive feeling and close supervision was variable, with the self-esteem of the worker as an intervening variable. Therefore, the degree of frustration experienced by an individual due to close/punitive supervision should vary inversely with the individual's degree of self-esteem.

The sample was composed of 24 groups of four undergraduate women at Washington University; all were freshmen or sophomores between the ages of 17 and 19. Each group received a pre-task questionnaire, then spent 40 minutes at a task, and subsequently completed a post-task questionnaire. A two-by-two factorial design with high-low manipulation of the two independent variables (close and punitive styles of supervision) was used, assigning randomly six groups to each cell.

Results showed that close supervision produced a situation distinguishable from that produced by "punitive." There was a tendency for the former to displace aggression and be characterized by an absence of verbal aggression towards the supervisor. The differences appeared to be based on the generic difference between "close" and "punitive" styles; "close" was a frustrating agent while "punitive" was an aggressing agent. The hypotheses were therefore: (1) to the extent that A frustrates B, B will be instigated to aggress against A; and (2) to the extent that A aggresses against B, B will be instigated to aggress against A. Therefore, the differences in response patterns may actually represent generic differences in the response patterns to aggression and frustration. Since the pain they felt was not intended, those under close supervision could not express verbal aggression and consequently engaged in displacement; those under punitive supervision had reason for verbal aggression and therefore did not need to displace it.

30. Dentler, Robert. "Dropouts, Automation, and The Cities," _Teachers College Record_, 65 (March, 1964), pp. 475-483.

Dropout rates are deceiving because of the publicity given them. They do not take into account inadequacy of records when students move, students who return to school at a later date, or those who involuntarily drop out. Research has tried to find reasons in the dropout himself, his family, or environment, instead of looking at the school, its program, and its staff. It takes about three years for a graduate or dropout, unless he is Negro, to find a real place in the adult work force. The major youth problem is neither socio-economic disadvantage nor failure to obtain a high school diploma. It is, rather, a steady relative breakdown in the absorption of the young non-college graduate into the work force due to the upgrading of occupational requirements through automation, and the relation of this change to changes in the young adult population. Because of increase in the number of young people entering the labor market, high school graduation will not differentiate the employed from the unemployed; competition will be severe for all non-college graduates. Education does not change fast enough to articulate general education with changing work requirements. Youth unemployment is felt most sharply in the larger cities. The main attack should be on improving the quality of early general elementary education, so that the seeds of withdrawal will be less likely to be sown and youth will be equipped with the cognitive skills necessary for continuous adjustment to change.

31. Dilley, D. R. "Job Hints for Your Students," Business Education World, 41 (January, 1961), pp. 16-17.

This article presented a number of job hints. They were divided into three categories. Under the category of "what employers seek," the following were stressed: (1) scholastic accomplishment in all courses; (2) participation and leadership in extracurricular activities; (3) effective oral and written English; (4) good personal habits and character; and (5) pleasing personal appearance. The category identified as "you and your job" contained these job hints: (1) before arriving at work, outline what you hope to accomplish; (2) prepare and maintain brief lists of specific tasks that must be done; (3) set aside some time each day to think about the broad aspects of the job; (4) when you expect unproductive time, take something to do; (5) recognize that you may have to work overtime; (6) try to complete each assignment successfully; (7) before making a call, jot down the important points to discuss; (8) strive for conciseness and clarity in reports; (9) be careful to be accurate; (10) accept responsibility for errors; (11) recognize that you will make mistakes; (12) be honest; (13) be a good listener; (14) strive to increase the value of your services; (15) recognize that you represent your firm; (16) manage your own finances wisely; (17) keep an orderly set of files; (18) be punctual; (19) don't watch the clock; (20) adhere closely to departmental rules; (21) get a sound formal education; (22) take advantage of training courses offered; and (23) refrain from profanity. The following suggestions were listed under the category "you and other individuals": (1) do first whatever your immediate supervisor wants done; (2) when you make a mistake, inform your supervisor; (3) don't be afraid to ask for help; (4) cultivate the ability to get along with others; and (5) be as helpful as you can to other employees.

32. Eckerman, William. "The Relationship of Need Achievement to Production, Job Satisfaction, and Psychological Stress," Dissertation Abstracts, 24 (1964), p. 3446.

This research attempted to determine the relationship of productivity to need for achievement, to assess achievement as a predictor of job satisfaction, and the level of psychological stress.

The sample consisted of 655 agents of 36 offices of a brokerage firm, where it was assumed achievement motive would be strong. Questionnaires and production figures from company records were used to measure achievement, job satisfaction, and psychological stress.

A positive significant correlation was found to exist between achievement score and production, and some correlation with expectancy of success. Stress levels were higher for low producing agents high on achievement. Satisfaction did not vary with production, nor for agents high on achievement, with low or medium production.

33. Eddy, Max and Jerry Moss, Jr. "Out of School, Ready to Work," Overview, 3 (August, 1962), pp. 42-44.

Recognizing the neglect of education to produce citizens trained in socially useful occupations, the authors offered a plan for a satisfactory school curriculum. There were seven major facets to the proposal. The program would be labeled a "general industrial orientation" with admission open to all except severely handicapped or mentally retarded. Occupational areas for job training should be determined after analysis of employment needs. The program would begin at grade 11, but, for special cases (to retain a potential dropout), initiated earlier. The youth gains broad occupational experience before being permitted to specialize. His attitudes and performance would determine whether he continues in this type of curriculum. The general industrial program would be vocational in orientation, with job preparation as its purpose. This proposal aspired to bring about desirable conditions by offering better educational opportunities, reduction of dropouts, and adequate preparations for vocational and occupational requirements and, in the long-run, the prestige of vocational/industrial education would be enhanced.

34. Ehrle, Raymond. "Employment Counseling as an Integral Part of an Active Labor Market Policy," Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 13 (Summer, 1965), pp. 270-274.

The central thesis of this paper was that adjustment counseling must be provided in order to insure an active labor market policy. Many people who require adjustment counseling are characterized as having "inadequate education, distorted self-concepts, faulty expectations, lack of interest or know-how in seeking work, lack of knowledge about current or future limitations on opportunities, geographical immobility, and acceptance of welfare dependency as a way of life." Many of these are associated with achieving or validating one's identity as a person. Adjustment counseling is concerned with helping "normal" people who are unaware of the need for counseling.

35. Ehrle, Raymond. "The Geographically Immobile: A New 'Minority Group,'" Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 10 (Summer, 1962), pp. 206-207.

This article deals with an emerging group of workers, the geographically immobile, who are becoming an increasing problem. There is a growing trend for plants and research facilities of various industries to be located in what owners consider to be less costly areas. If the worker is unwilling, for whatever reason, to move, he becomes a part of a vocational minority group. This group includes those who fail to assess the situation properly, those who cannot move for practical reasons, and those who do not wish to relocate. All counselors should recognize members of this group as discriminating against themselves.

36. England, George and Carroll Stein. "The Occupational Reference Group: A Neglected Concept in Employee Attitude Studies," Personnel Psychology, 14 (Autumn, 1961), pp. 299-304.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship of occupational differences to certain attitudinal areas in the employment setting, and to consider the implications of such differences for both research and application.

Non-supervisory employees of 26 companies (N = 3,207) participated in the study. The Triple Audit Employee Attitude questionnaire was used. It contained 54 items scored in terms of a Likert 5-point scale.

There were significant occupational differences in terms of item responses, showing the importance of the occupational variable in attitude research and emphasizing the need for occupational norms. It is possible to identify important areas of the work setting, for specific occupations, as related to attitudes. Three major implications were drawn. First, it may be useful to develop special attitude scales for different occupational groups. Second, the occupational variable should be controlled before attitudes are related to other variables. Third, the use of occupational norms would provide a more accurate picture of an organization's total attitude complex.

37. Fleck, Henrietta. "Concepts of Work: A Reappraisal," Practical Forecast for Home Economics, 9 (April, 1964), pp. 7+.

A person's image of "work" has an influence on the way he looks upon a job. This image usually stems from family and community, and children usually reflect their parents' views on it. A teacher must be aware of the difference in images among her students because it is basic to the planning of student experiences for job preparation. Work has an important influence on the way men and women interpret their roles, but modern-day women workers confuse the female role and tend to weaken the male image. Some students believe that their work benefits society, and this wider view is seen as being able to lead them to find more satisfaction in their jobs. Work can also be important in fulfilling a person's basic needs for recognition and achievement. Conferences and workshops can be used in further exploration of work images so that teachers will be able to realistically prepare their students for jobs. This reappraisal was deemed necessary after the passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963.

38. Fleishman, E. A. "Attitude Versus Skill Factors in Work Group Productivity," Personnel Psychology, 18 (Autumn, 1965), pp. 253-266.

This article described some of the dynamics of the work group situation as they related to the production process. The study attempted to separate the aspects of attitude versus skill learning.

The day-to-day productivity of sewing machine operators was studied for 18 consecutive work days. There were four phases to the study: (1) control and experimental group members were matched and productivity over a 20-week period, on a day-to-day basis, was summarized; (2) questionnaire data were related to productivity data; (3) introduction of experimental treatment, principally in the participation allowed in advance of a new style; and (4) a follow-up examination was made of productivity for four additional months subsequent to the experiment.

The situation studied differed from previous studies in that change was a recurrent factor in the production process. The evidence was in favor of an attitude interpretation rather than a skill relearning interpretation of production drops and rises. Skill level was already high and the introduction of the new incentive allowed the high transfer effect from one style to the next to show up. It also appeared that direct participation of individual workers was not as important an incentive as their perception of the group's participation in these work changes. The study also indicated the subtle nature of these attitudes which workers have difficulty, or reluctance, verbalizing. They were more likely to refer to the skill relearning problems, but there appeared to be some implicit goal setting from day-to-day which carried the worker's earnings to new levels at a fairly regular and predictable rate, until a leveling-off point was reached.

39. Fleishman, E. A. and E. F. Harris. "Patterns of Leadership Behavior Related to Employee Grievances and Turnover," Personnel Psychology, 15 (Spring, 1962), pp. 43-56.

This study investigated the relationships between foreman behavior and two primary indices of group behavior, labor grievances and employee turnover.

Participating in this study were 57 production foremen and their work groups. At least three randomly chosen workers from each group described the leader behavior of their foreman on the Supervisory Behavior Description Questionnaire. Grievances were defined in terms of the number presented in writing and placed in company files. Turnover was determined as the number of workers who voluntarily left the employ of the company during a period of 11 months.

The study revealed a significant relationship between the leader behavior of the foremen and the labor grievance and employee turnover in their work groups. There were critical levels beyond which increased consideration or decreased structure had no effect. Also, both increased most markedly at the extreme ends of the scale. The critical points were not the same for grievances and turnover. Thus, it appeared that there may be different "threshold levels" of consideration and structure related to grievances and turnover. Other findings concerned the interaction effects found between the different combinations of consideration and structure.

40. Freedman, Marcia. "Part-Time Work Experience and Potential Early School-Leavers," American Journal of Ortho-Psychiatry, 33 (April, 1963), pp. 509-514.

The author discussed the disappearance of the youngster's contributory roles by not having the opportunity to work. Work-study programs assume that the value of work will improve motivation and adjustment in adolescents, but recent data question these assumptions. Among a group of Brooklyn dropouts, there was no significant difference in tenure or in number of jobs held during the first year between boys who had considerable work experience and boys who had little or no previous experience. Yet, many work-study programs are based on the premise that experience of any work type, as long as it's sanctioned and supervised by the school will have a positive effect. An overlooked fact is that marginal jobs are frequently the only kinds of jobs available to marginal students. Programs are justified on the basis of gaining improved work habits, self-esteem, recognition, and understanding the importance of education. There is a tendency to assume that having a job will accomplish these goals. Some negative effects are: working makes some youths impatient with the rigid demands of a school setting; a work situation offers more feelings of freedom than does the school; many children have only a tenuous relationship with the school social life and work further alienates them from school; and some jobs offered are marginal, unrewarding, menial and can generate problems for youth who try to reconcile their goals and the status or rewards of their present employment. This could present difficulty in keeping a child work-value oriented.

41. Friedlander, Frank. "Importance of Work Versus Non-work Among Socially and Occupationally Stratified Groups," Journal of Applied Psychology, 50 (December, 1966), pp. 437-441.

The purpose of this study was the comparison of work and non-work factors in the environment as important to satisfaction, with reference to the socially and occupationally stratified groups to which the worker belongs.

The sample consisted of 1,468 respondents who completed an anonymous questionnaire sent to civilian wage earners of a U. S. government branch in a small isolated community, where work and community were closely related. The same group had been used for Friedlander's 1965 comparative work values study. Ratings were secured for the importance to satisfaction or dissatisfaction of items within five environmental factors: work content (intrinsic), work context (extrinsic), church, education, and community recreation. The white- and blue-collar social groupings were each classified into high, medium and low job levels.

For both groups work-related factors were of greater importance than community facilities, but blue-collar workers and low status white-collar workers attributed the greatest importance to work context, while medium and high status white-collar workers placed primary importance on work content. Friedlander's results showed the primary importance of work as a source of satisfaction, but his measures of non-work sources of satisfaction were limited to certain community facilities. Of these, church was most important to blue-collar workers and low status white-collar workers; white-collar workers as a whole gave equal importance to church, education, and community recreation.

42. Friedlander, Frank. "Job Characteristics as Satisfiers and Dissatisfiers," Journal of Applied Psychology, 48 (December, 1964), pp. 388-392.

This study subjected the assumption of bipolar continuum in job satisfaction to quantitative analysis. The core question was: Which characteristics of work provide the greatest source of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction?

Two questionnaires were used. One measured the importance ascribed by the respondent to 18 variables as sources of satisfaction; the second measured the importance ascribed by the same respondent to the lack of or negative aspect of the same variables as sources of dissatisfaction. There were 80 subjects, more than one-half of whom were full-time employees in a variety of occupations and positions attending an evening course in industrial or child psychology. The remainder were college students in a cooperative work program.

The study indicated significant differences between the importance an employee ascribed to various job characteristics as a source of satisfaction as opposed to these same characteristics as a source of dissatisfaction. Non-significant correlations tended to show that satisfaction and dissatisfaction were not on a bipolar continuum. The majority of characteristics were significant contributors to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction, although the way each served such dual functions was often different and unrelated for one as compared to the other. These results indicated that it was not justifiable to convert the two constructs into a single scale or a single construct.

43. Friedlander, Frank. "Underlying Sources of Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, 47 (August, 1965), pp. 246-250.

This study was concerned with an analysis of the elements within the job context to obtain construct validation of the underlying sources of job satisfaction. The research also analyzed the differences in overall satisfaction among the groups of employees.

A questionnaire was administered to 10,000 employees (engineering, supervisory, and salaried) of a large manufacturing company. Two hundred from each of the three groups were randomly selected and given tests of satisfaction.

The three major factors associated with job satisfaction were: (1) social and technical environment; (2) intrinsic self-actualizing work; and (3) recognition through advancement. There was a significant relationship between the source of satisfaction factors, and age, salary, and position-occupation categories. Those who derived satisfaction from the social/technical environment were older, but less well paid and most often in the salaried and supervisory groups. There was no indication that any one of the groups had greater overall job satisfaction.

44. Friedlander, Frank and Eugene Walton. "Positive and Negative Motivations Toward Work," Administrative Science Quarterly, 9 (September, 1964), pp. 194-207.

This study hypothesized that the reasons one remains with an organization differ from the reasons for which one might leave the organization. More specifically, it posited that the reasons an employee remained with an organization (positive motivations) were concerned primarily with work process factors; the reasons an employee left an organization (negative motivations) were primarily concerned with factors peripheral to the work process itself, or with factors related to the community environment.

Eighty-two of the most productive scientists and engineers in one of the Armed Services' largest research and developmental laboratories were sampled. Data were collected through personal, open-ended interview questions.

The data clearly showed that the scientist or engineer remained with his organization for different reasons from those for which he might leave. The data also indicated that positive motivations (elements central to work process) and negative motivations (peripheral to work) were not merely opposites. Work-process characteristics must be assumed to produce or prevent job satisfaction while being ineffective in producing or preventing job dissatisfaction. Similarly, work-context characteristics related to negative motivations would seem to produce or prevent dissatisfaction, but would be ineffective in the area of job satisfaction.

45. Friedmann, Georges. The Anatomy of Work. New York: Free Press of Glencoe, 1961.

The principle of division of labor formed the universal design of progress in both Europe and America. This evolution is linked with the history of industrial capitalism, the purpose of which was to produce more at minimum cost in order to meet the demands of invested capital and the growing needs of expanding consumer markets. This cycle produced many problems, i.e., work specialization, job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, routine vs. intellectually intriguing work, mobility, job rotation, etc., and, in the final analysis, the alienation of the worker from his job. Escape from boredom and other unsatisfying aspects of the job, may lead to a "desperate" drive for leisure. The author stresses the point that, in an effort to regain the initiative, responsibility, and sense of achievement denied him in his job, the worker resorts to hobbies, arts and crafts, etc. This lack of participation in occupational settings is causing a variety of psychological adjustment problems which are becoming increasingly more serious in the more technologically advanced societies. Needs, desires, capacities and aspirations, which are essential to man, remain unused and run to waste. Man gives little of himself. Unfortunately for the majority of workers, their leisure activities are still patterned by the same behavioral mode, i.e., lack of intensity, participation, or complete absorption. They are typified as observers in such activities as T.V. viewing, movies, and sports.

46. Gardner, John. From High School to Job. Reprinted from 1960 Annual Report of the Carnegie Corporation. New York: Carnegie Corporation, 1960.

The author discusses the Protestant Ethic value orientation in relation to success and achievement, claiming we have confused our value systems. He feels our insistence on college-geared youth causes alternatives assulting their self-respect and self-development. The author feels that high schools do reasonably well in preparing youth for the work world but he is concerned with how effectively schools aid youth in actually making the transition. He believes that even the best of our schools do virtually nothing toward this end. High schools should provide continuing vocational and educational guidance for all who leave school until they are 21 years of age, pointing out the various formal and informal training opportunities made available by industry, schools (public and private), radio courses, and various other media that can increase the potentials of each youth. The transition from school to job will become easier as the "artificial wall" between schools and the outer world breaks down along with the notion that education as a continuing process terminates upon graduation.

47. Gaudet, Frederick J. Solving the Problems of Employee Absence. American Management Association Research Study 57. New York: American Management Association, 1963.

This study examined the measurement of absenteeism and reports on the cost of absenteeism, with a summary of available data relating to absence rates from various companies. Results of studies of factors related to employee absence differed in their methods of classifying causes. In some studies it was found that improved sick benefits resulted in more absences. Absence rates, other than for illness, seemed to be related to supervisory behavior. Habitual absenteeism was often correlated with poor work habits, personal maladjustments, dissatisfaction with work, irresponsibility, outside difficulties, and sickness or fatigue. Individuals who were habitually absent from work often had jobs they disliked, tended to be younger, single, and living away from home. Good or poor management also affected the absence rate. Some studies also indicated a small proportion of employees had a large proportion of absences and that this group remained fixed over time. Although there have been many methods tried and reported for the control and reduction of absence, no scientifically effective technique has been found. Methods tried by a number of companies were reported, most of them successful only for a short time.

48. Gellerman, Saul W. Motivation and Productivity. New York: American Management Association, 1963.

This book presented and synthesized significant studies in motivation, discussed various theories, and showed the practical implications for management policy of research on motivation. There are two aspects of motivation whose continuing interplay produces both long and short term worker-management interactions.

The first of these is the effect on motivation of the work environment and the attitudes and actions of management. In this context the author discussed the research of Mayo, the Michigan, Pittsburgh and Harvard Studies, William Whyte's work on the impact of pay, Chris Argyris on the impact of the organization, and Douglas McGregor on the impact of management philosophy. The individual at work encounters a complex of fellow workers, supervisors, reward systems, an organisation structure, top management, and the job itself, which may be stultifying or stimulating. The motivational environment too often suppresses the individual. Most research implies that organizations are over-managed to the point where initiative and ingenuity are lost. The pattern of close supervision and tight management is suited to certain situations, but many organizations could be more productive with more flexibility and greater participation by the worker. The second aspect of motivation is that of the individual himself, his needs and purposes, his personality and background. Many people find that their jobs offer little opportunity for satisfying their deeper needs. This is particularly true for the non-college person, the production worker, and persons who are middle-aged. In the last few years, psychologists have made major advances in understanding human motivation that have important implications for industry. The author discussed the competence motive and the work of Robert White, the affiliation motive and the work of Stanley Schachter, the achievement motive of David McClelland, prestige and security motives, and biographical studies attempting to understand the origin and development of these motives. He then considered what he feels is the least understood of all motives, the money motive. Money may be an end in itself, but because it is measurable it may be a symbol for other motives, achievement, prestige or security, for example. Management needs to consider the impact of these two aspects of motivation on each other. The structure and dynamics of motives are different for each individual. The hierarchy of needs, satisfiers and motivators are all likely to be personal and subjective. Many people are motivated only by satisfiers, such as work groups and rewards, because their needs for these are not fulfilled or because they have not developed to the point of desiring more active participation in work. Motivators are all related to mastery of the environment. The dynamics of motives are difficult to understand because a motive may be masked, one may be a psychological substitute for another, and its meaning may change with maturity. The worker's self-concept, accurate or not, influences his behavior, his reaction to the work environment, and his attitude toward his job. Income is frequently a symbol of whether the world agrees with a man's concept of his own worth. The individual's concept of his environment develops from childhood, and he perceives it as having a power as well as a reward aspect. He is always following a strategy for getting along in the kind of world he thinks he lives in, where both financial and psychological advantage are important concepts. The author discusses the relationship of self-concept and psychological advantage to advancement and supervision. The final chapters of the book analyse major managerial problems in the light of what is known about motivation: leadership, recruitment, morale, change and labor unions.

49. Glick, Peter, Jr. "Occupational Values and Anticipated Occupational Frustration of Agriculture College Students," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 42 (March, 1964), pp. 674-679.

This investigation attempted to examine certain dimensions of anticipated occupational frustration among respondents who indicated variant occupational aspirations and expectations. It also focused on the influence of class in college, academic standing, father's occupation, and occupational values.

The sample consisted of 339 under-graduates majoring in agriculture at Delaware Valley College. An 8-item inquiry form was coded as to class in college, number of dimensions of anticipated occupational frustration groups, father's occupational rating groups, and academic standing groups.

Generally, the occupational values and choices of the under-graduates were crystallised. Those with anticipated occupational frustration believed they would be only moderately dissatisfied. Their occupational expectations were allied closely enough to their aspirations so as to eliminate any real dissatisfaction. The greater extent of anticipated occupational frustration among the lower socio-economic groups as compared to the higher, was the result of quite logical and realistic appraisals of actualities. They had also resolved a system of occupational values that they felt would be satisfied through their occupational choices.

50. Goldstein, Bernard J. and Harry Stark. Entering the Labor Force. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1964.

This book focused on labor-management relations throughout the work cycle of an average individual. The important points in the series of events which make up that cycle are viewed from the standpoint of both the employee and the employer (i.e., finding jobs and workers, preparing for retirement, etc.). In some circumstances, the problem cannot be solved at the plant level; sometimes the broader interests of the community must be represented through protective legislation; while some problems arise from the very nature of our economic system and its relationship to other systems. Federal legislation is often aimed at coping with these latter problems. However, it must be realised that if our economy is to remain dynamic, there will always be rising and declining industries at different times.

51. Goodman, Paul. Growing Up Absurd: Problems of Youth in the Organized System. New York: Random House, 1960.

Goodman's concern is with "the organized system of semi-monopolies," and the disaffection of youth. These organizations preempt the means and brainpower available, shutting out intelligent dissent and non-conformity. By paying more attention to roles, procedures, prestige, and profit, business gives less direct attention to the function, object, program, task and need. Thus, the writer claims there are increasingly fewer jobs available which are either necessary or unquestionably useful. Provision of food and shelter constitutes a "man's work"; anything else is of questionable utility. According to the author, America's class structure contains three major segments: the organized system, the poor, and the independent. The organized system is further broken down into managers, organization men, and workers. Most average young men go to work in organizations. After a few years, many believe they live in a "rat race," at which time some stop running, but the majority do not. Those who stop are likely to become "beats," prefering some of the humbler jobs of the poor (i.e., farm labor, washing dishes, messenger, etc.) which are not useless or exploitive. Those who continue to run are "organization men," "role players," "hipsters," without any real aptitude, training, or commitment. These individuals can, nevertheless, fit the expectations and perceptions that others have of them. Although these persons may realise they are only playing a role, they are aware that they must continue to do so if they are to protect their status and salary, their key to belonging in the organization, and hence the definition of what they are in their society. In the organized system, production and product have been separated so that most people in the system are unconcerned with what they make. This is partly because vocational guidance is more likely to try to "chop a man down" to fit a job than to find a job which will give him the opportunity to fulfill his creative potential. Although foremen seem to believe that the most important thing to a man in his job is the money, a survey of the literature (Herzberg's Job Attitudes) found interest second only to security in importance to the worker. Goodman, therefore, thinks that if we make "sensible use of our productivity," there would be a vast number of people subsequently unemployed, or a vast number of people relieved of a lot of useless work, depending upon your perspective.

52. Gravley, George. "Jobs and Emotions," Wall Street Journal, 161 (March 5, 1963), pp. 1+.

Industrialists are becoming increasingly aware of the importance of their employees' emotional health. The American Psychiatric Association's Committee of psychiatry in industry estimated that more than 400 psychiatrists are now working full/part time in industry mental health programs whereas four years ago there were only 144. The National Association of Mental Health estimated that one out of 10 Americans suffer from emotional disturbances, and company psychiatrists are convinced that this problem contributes to the $12 billion loss suffered by American industry every year due to absenteeism, turnover, alcoholism, accidents, etc. Several companies have conducted studies on the effect of psychiatric help for workers, and concluded that it was economically justified. Because the emotionally disturbed are sometimes hard to identify, some companies have begun briefing their supervisory personnel on the symptoms of emotional disturbance. As industrial interest grows, research emphasis is shifting toward the problem of prevention of emotional disturbances.

53. "Greener Pastures," Wall Street Journal, 167 (March 10, 1966), pp. 1+.

The increased number of men quitting jobs and changing to others is proving very costly for most employers. Salaries have to increase in order to hold personnel, schedules are not followed when key men quit, production slows down and overtime pay is required for those who remain to do the quitter's work. Men leave for a variety of reasons. The expanding economy assures them of many job openings so that they often seek a job which will provide satisfaction as well as money; some quit to join the war on poverty; others join the military when their type of work is similar to that of the military jobs; and still others temporarily quit because they have enough money to live on and they would rather play than work. Quitting is problematic to top management, even beyond the money it may entail, therefore, steps are being taken to hold personnel. Salaries are being raised, requirements, such as residence for government jobs, are being changed or eliminated and industries are making unwritten agreements to stop intercompany raiding of personnel.

54. Gross, Edward. "Sociological Approach to the Analysis of Preparation for Work Life," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 45 (January, 1967), pp. 416-423.

It is the author's opinion that jobs will continue to be the major factor in associating the individual to society and in providing him with income, status, and self-fulfillment. In sociological terms, preparation of an individual for the work world means four different kinds of participation: (1) preparation for a life in an organization; (2) preparation for a set of role relationships; (3) preparation for a level and kind of consumption; and (4) preparation for an occupational history. The dominant characteristic of Western industrial society is to achieve its goals through large-scale organization. The average firm is small, but the average employee works for the large firm. Certain implications arise from the fact that most workers are employed in large organizations: (1) The worker finds himself occupying a position in a hierarchy of authority. (2) The search for security means associating oneself with a large organization that can offer protection against change, rather than preparing oneself with skills that can meet any emergency. (3) Persons working in a large organization do not develop major friendships and relationships at work. (4) Organizations are established to maximize the probability of success of goal-attainment. (5) No organization has solved all the problems necessary to the attainment of its goals, and has a major need for initiative and creativity on the part of the workers within the context of a set of rules. (6) The data on job-shifting suggests that the average employee holds many jobs in a lifetime. (7) Mobility within an organization is not always upward. Preparation for work must involve preparation for role sets. More attention must be given to family, job counseling, ethnic differences, and those differences associated with sex, religion, and location. As for careers, professionalization is not the solution to maintaining one's autonomy. Job counseling must be broadened to include the relationships between a person's work career and his life cycle. There must also be a change in approach to the decision-making process. These ideas are strongly related to counseling. A career choice should be based on a positive selection among alternatives, rather than as a by-product of negative decision making. A counselor should attempt to help a person prepare for short-term employment and not his life-cycle employment, because reasonable employment forecasts about the world of work can be made for only a limited period.

55. Gurssolin, O. R. and J. L. Roach. "Some Issues in Training the Unemployed," Social Problems, 12 (Summer, 1964), pp. 86-94.

Automation has led to changes in the occupational structure. Most evident is the need for workers with higher skills--technicians with special competencies. At the same time, there is a decreased need for workers who perform repetitive tasks--unskilled and semi-skilled workers. Research shows that the unskilled and semi-skilled contribute disproportionately to the unemployment rate. Of the 26 million young people who will enter the labor market in the '60's, seven and one-half million will not have finished high school and two and one-half million will not have finished elementary school. Training is seen as an answer to the problem. This report's central concern is a discussion of federal training programs (MDTA and ARA). Officially, the focus of these programs is the long-term unemployed, but an evaluation of their graduates shows that they face a basic dilemma. They must either train a minority for highly skilled jobs (as they have been doing because of their selection method for trainees), or they must gear training to the level of background and aptitude of the majority, by preparing them for occupations which are already oversupplied. From a review of the literature, the authors compare the generalized social-psychological attributes of lower-class persons with a summary of the characteristics necessary for workers in automated industry and traditional skilled jobs. They come to the conclusion that these two simply do not match. Thus, they doubt that any appreciable number of lower-status persons will ever be able to keep such positions, as long as the "culture of poverty" remains as it is today. To change this situation, they present Theobald's proposal for a guaranteed income floor under every individual irrespective of his employment level. With the conditions of poverty ameliorated, a program of educational and training opportunity could be instituted, starting with an emphasis on the three R's. Theoretically, if lower-status persons receive a more adequate education and income, they will be more able to make a productive contribution to society. This applies primarily to those who are of lower status but under 21. Since older persons respond less well to education, a solution to their unemployment problem would be employment in the public sector of the economy, since the private sector does not provide enough jobs for the minimally skilled. The government, therefore, must initiate massive public works projects if full employment goals are realized.

56. Hall, Oswald and Bruce McFarlane. Transition from School to Work. Ottawa, Canada: Department of Labor, Report 10, Queen's Printer, December, 1962.

The authors explored the wide range of relationships between the formal educational system, especially vocational education and its specialized training, and the world of occupational experiences. The book reported the experiences of a group of youngsters during the transitional school-to-work period. It examined how jobs were found, whether school achievement was linked to job opportunities and income, the unemployment risk group, the effectiveness of guidance in schools, who goes on to further their education, and whether the sexes faced similar transitional problems.

The findings were quantitatively derived from analysis of school records and employment histories of 21 year olds in the community called Paulend. In addition, qualitative interviews with the youth, their teachers, and employers were also conducted. The major drawback of this type of methodology is that results cannot be generalized. In order to rectify this inadequacy, the authors sought for a modified control study in a comparable district of a large metropolitan area and compared the data. They found no substantial differences in so far as school patterns or initial moves into the work world were concerned.

Job opportunities were found to vary directly with education. Initial jobs for both sexes were easy to find but subsequent ones were progressively more difficult. Girls handled terminal high school situations with greater facility, and the training offered them was more satisfactory than that offered boys; therefore, the females had a greater chance to adjust to the work world. This is reflected in the larger proportion of females than males who experienced upward, intergenerational mobility. Conclusions from previous research concerning the socio-economic level of the family and the youth's school and work achievements and potentials were also confirmed by this study.

57. Harding, Francis D. and Robert Bottenberg. "Effects of Personal Characteristics on Relationships between Attitudes and Job Performance," Journal of Applied Psychology, 45 (December, 1961), pp. 428-430.

One reason for the lack of relationship usually found between attitudes and job performance is the failure to take into account important biographical and situational variables. The inclusion of such variables in multiple regression problems would improve the prediction of job performance.

Data collected for 376 airmen by Whitlock and Cureton in an investigation of morale among Air Force personnel, with the addition of biographical data on rank, career intention, length of service, kind of work performed, and number of months in squadron were subjected to re-analysis by multiple regression techniques. Variables were classified as attitude, biographical, interaction, or criterion.

No significance was found in the contribution of attitudinal variables to the prediction made by biographical variables nor in the contribution of attitude-rank interaction variables to the combination of linear attitude variables plus biographical variables. However, the contribution of biographical variables to a linear combination of attitude variables is significant for job performance criteria. Biographical variables should be considered when relating attitudes to productivity.

58. Harrison, Roger. "Cumulative Communality Cluster Analysis of Workers Job Attitudes," Journal of Applied Psychology, 45 (April, 1961), pp. 123-125.

Tryon's cumulative communality cluster analysis was applied to intercorrelations of items from job attitude questionnaires answered by two groups of industrial workers.

All hourly paid men from Plant A (350) and Plant B (650) making similar products composed the sample. Questionnaires contained 100 items, 68 of which were common to the two questionnaires; items were rated on a five-point scale. Responses were dichotomized, tetrachoric correlations computed, a multiple group factor analysis performed, and items clustered by blind analysis on the basis of factor loadings. Each plant was clustered separately.

The two sets of clusters were quite similar, although there were 12 clusters in Plant A and 9 in Plant B. The cluster domains were all positively correlated with one another. Kinds of variations indicated by the clusters were similar to those found by Wherry in a factor analysis of the SRA Employee Inventory. These kinds of variations may be common to a wide variety of industrial jobs and may not depend on the questionnaire used or the method of analysis.

59. Heneman, Herbert, Jr. and René Dawis. "The World of Work as it Appears to High School Students," Occupational Outlook Quarterly, 11 (May, 1967), p. 24.

This is a report based on a study being pursued at the Industrial Relations Center of the University of Minnesota, of which a preliminary survey has been completed.

More than 5,000 ninth to twelfth grade students in 12 Minneapolis-St. Paul metropolitan area schools responded to the initial questionnaire.

Some of the findings of this preliminary study were: (1) high school students need and want help in finding jobs, which they believe are not easy to find; (2) they do not feel that their age is a handicap in getting a job, but they do think their lack of experience is; (3) they regard a high school diplima as essential to getting a good job and see dropouts as "losers" under these circumstances; (4) their attitudes toward employers and unions are largely confused and undecided; (5) they are altruistically oriented (two-thirds disagree with the statement that money is the most important thing in a job); and (6) two-thirds would like to be making $8,000 a year or more, 10 years after they start to work.

60. Herzberg, Frederick. Work and The Nature of Man. Cleveland: World Publishing Company, 1966.

This book further develops the theory that Herzberg hypothesized in Motivation to Work and postulates that man is not only silently protesting the treatment accorded him by his society, but even society's conception of his nature. If man has shifted his view of the physical universe from a mystical to a rational point of view, then he also demands a rational view of his needs, while he searches for the meaning of his existence. He feels that industry, the largest institution in society, profits from the imperfect answers about human nature and prevents man from achieving his potential by no motivation, nor achievement motives. Therefore, man cannot gain happiness. Herzberg believes he offers a definition of man's total needs, one that is consistent with the world of work. Since he is deeply involved in mental health concepts, his job-attitude studies and theory are based on this conceptual framework.

61. Holmes, Douglas. "The Relation Between Relative Effects on Job Satisfaction of On-The-Job and Off-The-Job Fulfillment of Work-Related Needs," Dissertation Abstracts, 24 (1964), p. 3831.

This dissertation reported an investigation of the relationship between job-based need fulfillment and leisure-based need fulfillment in providing the individual with feelings of job satisfaction. The assumption was that an individual unable to satisfy a need at work, but able to do so in leisure, should be more satisfied.

Items were analyzed and incorporated into a modification of the Q-sort. Male clerical workers sorted the items into a hierarchy of importance for the ideal job, the actual job, the ideal leisure, and the actual leisure. They also completed a short job satisfaction questionnaire.

The relationship between job satisfaction and work-based need fulfillment was high. While individuals unable to fulfill a job-based need at work desired to do so in leisure (the greater the dissatisfaction, the more important the need), the greater the degree of perceived fulfillment of these needs in leisure, the greater the degree of reported job dissatisfaction.

62. Hovne, Avner. "Manpower Planning and The Restructuring of Education," International Labor Review, 89 (June, 1964), pp. 529-550.

Manpower planning relies in part upon reasonably accurate forecasts of the demand for different skills over a period of 10-20 years. Since the reliability of those predictions remains questionable, the author sought a solution outside the framework of manpower planning. He suggested the traditional structure of training and education could be revised to allow greater flexibility in meeting the changing demands of the labor market, positing an alternative system of manpower forecasting adapted to such a revised structure. The difference would come mainly from a change to be instituted in the time structure of the educational system. A person could, under such a system, stop intensive study at any of five educational levels (from primary level through "senior high"), but still continue a combination of work and study throughout his lifetime, acquiring degrees for any level at any age.

63. Hudtwalker, William. "Education for Work," High Points, 43 (February, 1961), pp. 36-50.

As a result of the projected labor picture, the type of worker who seems to be in demand is one from whom qualitative, not quantitative, work is expected. The higher the level of specialization, the greater the risk of obsolescence. Training must be geared toward flexibility. The author argued against work experiences as a substitute for continuing education. Children need more and better education and schooling to develop their potentials. He felt that work experience programs are a way "out" for administrators faced with youths who have little scholastic aptitude. Better guidance, counseling, general education, and job preparation courses will enable youth to face and adequately cope with the modern world of technological and social change.

64. Hueber, Donald F. "Skill Level and Job Satisfaction," Personnel Journal, 44 (April, 1965), pp. 198-203.

It was hypothesized that there is a relationship between skill levels, pride of workmanship and job satisfaction. The latter is considered as the dependent variable, with the other two treated as independent variables.

Selected for study were employees and former employees of a National Guard Technician Group because they offered three distinct job groups--supervisors, clerical workers, and technicians. A participant observation approach was employed. Data were collected over a period of a year; the workers were not aware a study was being conducted. Simple arithmetic computations were made.

Mechanics had lower turnover and more pride of workmanship than the clerical workers; their jobs were better suited to the pride of workmanship concept. Supervisors' job work patterns were close to the clerical group, but were more administratively oriented.

65. Jenness, William. "Don't Close the Door: What Industry Can Do for Today's Youth," Personnel Journal, 43 (February, 1964), pp. 94-95.

Youth become very discouraged and bitter at the rude brush-off treatment they receive when job-hunting. The Sparton Electronics Division of Jackson, Michigan helps youth by permitting everyone who applies for a job to fill out an application and by alloting time to talk to each youth. Positions in the company and training needed for them are discussed, and practical advice given on how to acquire training if it is desired. This company also participates in a cooperative program with several schools providing training opportunities for students in its various departments. The company feels that it is helping by taking time to talk to youth, indicating what the practical world is like and what it requires.

66. "Jobs After High School," Changing Times, 18 (March, 1966), pp. 20-23.

This article presents a guide to jobs available to those who graduate from high school and do not intend to go on to college. It gives job qualifications and outlook for the jobs' future. The picture presented is less than encouraging for those who enter the job market straight from high school. Although acquiring a first job may not be very difficult, keeping it and advancing in it may present problems because: (1) there are more teenage job seekers now than ever before and the number entering the market for the first time is increasing every year; (2) unemployment among teenagers in the work force is more than twice the national rate and rising steadily; (3) competition for advancement will come more and more from those with education beyond the high school level. However, for those students who do graduate from high school, the high school diploma gives them at least a 2-to-1 advantage over dropouts.

67. Jolly, William. "What Industry Expects From the New Employee," Business Education Forum, 15 (March, 1961), p. 36.

Industry expects the basic elements necessary for normal success on the job: punctuality, well-developed related skills, job interest, loyalty, and some ability to progress. The new employee has the right to expect orientation to job assignments, patience, a show of confidence from his supervisor, some security with the organization, and certain fringe benefits. However, the employee with the initial characteristics will merely be an average employee unless he has "completeness." This refers to an ability to get the job done without complaining, despite the obstacles that may exist. The new employee who can adjust his balance of interests in favor of his employer will succeed beyond the person who allows outside activity to control his working day. True success on the job is created through real interest and endeavor with some resulting sacrifices; industry compensates for these in many ways.

68. Jones, Stephan and Victor H. Vroom. "Division of Labor and Performance Under Cooperative and Competitive Conditions," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 68 (March, 1964), pp. 313-320.

This research tried to determine how certain characteristics of group tasks affect the size and direction of the differences in performance of cooperative and competitive groups, and to explore the affective reactions of persons working under these two conditions.

Sixty male students, under-graduates in psychology at the University of Pennsylvania, were randomly assigned to either cooperative or competitive diadic groups. The subjects in the competitive group were told that only the best scorer in 2 out of 3 tasks would receive a $1 reward. The cooperative group subjects were told that neither, or both, would receive the monetary reward. Conditions differed only in the criteria for allocating rewards. Tasks involved three jigsaw puzzles differing in the extent to which the arrangement of the pieces on the board enabled each person to observe the pieces others attempted to place and the incentive value of each placement to the participants.

Results indicated that division of labor is the variable mediating performance between cooperative and competitive situations. Groups under both conditions divided their labor to the same extent and performed equally well in low observability--low similarity of preference tasks. The data suggested that division of labor in competition groups was less important in determining performance than other factors, e.g., motivation or ability. The affective reactions of both groups showed definite attitudinal differences. Positive attitudes were reflected by the cooperative group. They were more satisfied with their performance and expressed amiability in interpersonal relations. The effect of feedback on the competitive group may have conditioned their attitudes because of the monetary reward factor.

69. Kasl, Stanislav V. and John R. P. French, Jr. "The Effects of Occupational Status on Physical and Mental Health," Journal of Social Issues, 18 (July, 1962), pp. 67-89.

This study employed a social-psychological approach to further understanding of the problems of status and health in an attempt to fill the causal gaps between the objective social environment and the health of the individual. After a summary of selected literature, the author presented his own theory. Commensurate terms should be used for describing a person's objective job status, his subjective status and his occupational self-esteem, and the description of the job environment. In this preliminary study the frequency of visits to a company's medical dispensary was used as a major dependent variable to test the hypotheses that skill level was inversely related and supervisory responsibility positively related to frequency of visits.

Of the two companies studied, Company A had 5,389 male employees and Company B had 527 non-supervisory and 198 supervisory employees.

Skill level seemed to be associated with frequency of visits as was perceived monotony of job and supervisory responsibility. If low self-esteem led to a higher frequency of dispensary visits, it might be related to the self-identity approach and the conceptualization of the effects of status.

70. Kaufman, Jacob, Carl Schaefer, Morgan Lewis, David Stevens, and Elaine House. The Role of the Secondary Schools in the Preparation of Youth for Employment. University Park, Pennsylvania: Institute for Research on Human Resources, Pennsylvania State University, February, 1967.

The three major concerns of this study were to examine the public high school vocational programs receiving federal and state funds, to determine their effect on the current use of manpower, to relate the employment experiences and attitudes toward high school experiences of high school graduate labor market entries, and to study the vocational education image held by teachers, union officials, and employers.

To carry out these objectives, visiting teams of experts assessed the areas of administration, vocational guidance, the programs and courses, and contact with the community in the following public school systems: Cleveland, Ohio; Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; Baltimore, Maryland; Allentown, Pennsylvania; Camden City and County, New Jersey; Trenton, New Jersey; Altoona, Pennsylvania; Atlantic City, New Jersey; and Findlay, Ohio. The sample consisted of 5,200 graduates of three curricula who were personally interviewed, and 3,200 graduates contacted by mail. In addition, 658 employees and 90 union officials were interviewed or responded to mailed questionnaires. Background data on economic and demographic trends and changes in community structure were gathered.

With respect to the first objective, the findings showed the schools were performing adequately in the areas they encompassed. Their weaknesses were in those things they were not doing. The major failure was in not developing programs for those students who could not profit from present offerings. There was a marked discrepancy between the proportion of students in the vocational curriculum and those who, upon leaving school, obtained jobs in the area of their study. Poor guidance programs and insufficient use of advisory committees were other aspects of this problem. In response to the questions concerning the image of vocational education, it was found that there existed a negative attitude among academic teachers from comprehensive high schools, while vocational teachers from a vocational school were the most positive. Academic teachers from a vocational school were as favorable as vocational teachers from comprehensive schools. In the community, the image was less favorable with employers from large companies. The findings suggested that Negroes could benefit from the vocational programs, and given present conditions, probably benefit more than from other curricula. Girls of high natural ability generally did not prepare themselves for the occupations they were capable of achieving. Several recommendations were suggested in regard to vocational offerings. These pertained to the needs of students and the community, the administration of vocational education, the preparation of vocational teachers and administrators, the use of advisory committees, vocational guidance and placement, evaluation through follow-up of graduates, and the comprehensive as opposed to separate vocational high school.

71. Kerr, Willard A. and Rudolph C. Keil. "A Theory and Factory Experiment on the Time-Drag Concept of Boredom," Journal of Applied Psychology, 47 (February, 1963), pp. 7-9.

Drawing an analogy from the perception of visual space, that broken space seems larger than unbroken space, the author believed, contrary to popular opinion, that time broken by nonrepetitive jobs would seem longer than time spent on repetitive short-cycle jobs. This would challenge the belief that the short-cycle repetitive job is conducive to boredom because it elicits a feeling of time-drag.

At about 2:30 in the afternoon, 47 employees of the Wolber Manufacturing Company were falsely informed that the company's clocks were incorrect and asked to judge how many minutes slow or fast the clock was. This was correlated with length of basic time cycle for each job, the degree of interest or boredom expressed by the employee, and a subjective classification of each job as variety-type or monotony-type.

Time-drag was greater in variety-type than in monotony-type jobs and greater in long-cycle than in short-cycle jobs. Time passed more slowly and less accurately for those who exhibited time-drag. Longer experience on a job brought less time-drag. The employee's own statement of interest or boredom was unrelated to the time-drag.

72. King, Donald C. "A Multiplant Factor Analysis of Employees' Attitudes Toward Their Company," Journal of Applied Psychology, 44 (August, 1960), pp. 241-243.

An examination of the factorial content of an attitude questionnaire which was designed specifically to assess employees' attitudes toward their company was done to determine whether responses to a questionnaire measuring specific attitudes were unifactorial or multifactorial. If multifactorial, the purpose was to investigate the nature of the factors present and their relation to the results of other factorial studies.

Production employees (N = 735) of 10 Indiana companies anonymously returned questionnaires mailed to all employees of the companies. The questionnaires contained 20 dichotomously scored items that had survived internal consistency analysis. Replies were considered without regard to sex, skill level, or company identification since the goal was identification of a broad factorial structure. Three factors were extracted and rotated orthogonally to simple structures.

A dominant first factor was found that represents employees' general attitude or bias toward their company. This may correspond with the general factor found by Wherry in the SRA Employee Inventory. In the first group factor called Respect for Personal Rights, employees' perceptions of their freedom within the plant and of managers' concern for their personal welfare were dominant. This seemed to be similar to the factor called Consideration in Halpin's study of leadership behavior of aircraft commanders. The second group factor was called Opportunity for Self-Improvement, and items with significant loadings were concerned with the employees' perceptions of opportunities for self-development, promotion, and increased knowledge of company operations. There was some indication that the first factor tended to tap employee reactions to past experiences in the company, while the second tended to tap perceptions of changes in company policies and actions.

73. Kinnane, John F. and Joseph R. Gavbinger. "Life Values and Work Values," Journal of Counseling Psychology, 10 (Winter, 1963), pp. 362-367.

Super's theory of vocational development, that the value system of the self-concept is a significant variable in the selection of a career, formed the basis for the authors' hypothesis. It was postulated that there would be significant positive correlations between certain life values, as measured by the Allport-Vernon Study of Values, and corresponding work values, as measured by the Work Values Inventory.

The sample consisted of 143 college freshmen in all major fields except fine arts. A modified form with new items of the Work Values Inventory was used. Product-moment correlations were computed between the value scales of the AVL and the WVI.

There were positive correlations, although not high, between the life values and work values. On the AVL, the subject was asked for his values in the abstract; on the WVI he was asked to make his judgments of values in the context of the world of work, where perhaps the influence of the chosen career or chosen field of study may have had some influence on his value orientation.

74. Kinnane, John F. and Martin W. Pable. "Family Background and Work Value Orientation," Journal of Counseling Psychology, 9 (Winter, 1962), pp. 320-325.

The following hypotheses were tested in this investigation: (1) Security-economic-material work values are positively related to the degree of materialistic atmosphere in the home. (2) Achievement-prestige work values are positively related to the upward mobility of the family. (3) Social-artistic work values are positively related to a combination of family influences. (4) Work conditions and associated work values are positively related to family cohesiveness. (5) Heuristic-creative work values are positively related to cultural stimulation in the home. (6) Independence-variety work values are negatively related to the degree of adolescent independence.

A representative sample of 121 eleventh-grade white males between 16 and 18 years of age was used. Family background was measured by the Biographical Inventory of Super and Overstreet for hypotheses 2, 4, 5 and 6. A scale on the same model was constructed for materialistic atmosphere. The Work Values Inventory contained 89 items and was a revised and enlarged form of that used by Super and Overstreet (using a five-point rating scale). Correlation coefficients were computed between the family and work value variables.

All the hypotheses were validated with the exception of the relationship of achievement-prestige values to the family's vertical mobility. The social-artistic values were measured by a combination of cultural stimulation and family cohesiveness. Intelligence was correlated with the work values and was found to be statistically insignificant. The influence of school program was also insignificant except for the heuristic-creative work values. The correlations of work values with family background variables were not high, but high enough to outrule chance relationships.

75. Kleiler, F. M. "Bending the Twigs," Supervision, 25 (February, 1963), p. 12.

This article was concerned with the process of inducting new employees into a company. It is known that most prepared induction material is not read. The employee learns about the company by word-of-mouth communication and on-the-job experience. Although some organizations have formal orientation courses, most rely on their literature and supervisors. Theoretically, a formal orientation relieves the supervisor of work, but actually the induction process is too important to turn over to the induction specialists alone. The supervisor must give personal and individual attention to each newcomer. He may perform the role of "friend" to the newcomer himself or carefully select another to do it. If the boss does not select someone in advance, either a self-appointed member will emerge or someone who is not busy at the time may be chosen. Whoever is assigned is in a position to shape attitudes; therefore, some care must be taken. The induction process extends beyond the first day; a good beginning is very important.

76. Klein, Stuart. "Work Pressure and Group Cohesion," Dissertation Abstracts, 24 (1964), p. 3448.

This research was an attempt to measure the effects of induced work pressure on group cohesion.

A total of 3,900 blue-collar workers, employed in six different plants, composed the sample.

The major findings suggested that work pressure on the individual induced competition which promoted intra-group conflict and reduced group cohesion. Applying pressure on a group brought group goals more in line with individual goals and created an environment in which competition occurred without being threatening.

77. Kornhauser, Arthur. Mental Health of the Industrial Worker. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1965.

The emphasis of this book was on positive mental health, not the illness of workers. Mental health was conceptualized as the overall level of effectiveness and satisfaction characteristic of a person in both the psychological and sociological realms. Purposive striving and active efforts to change things were the proposed elements of mental health studied individually.

The research was exploratory. It was based on a single intensive interview and questionnaire with 407 automotive workers and 248 men in comparison groups during mid-1950. The purpose was not only to contribute a clearer assessment of the quality of factory workers' life adjustment at different occupational levels, but to determine the factors that facilitated or retarded mental health in these groups. Several tests checked on the internal consistency of the construct and validity checks were made by comparison of the respondent's comments to his wife's testimony.

The findings of this study were that large numbers of production workers manifested behavioral, attitudinal, and emotional problems reflective of inadequate and unsatisfactory life adjustment and that these patterns varied significantly with levels of job held. Therefore, the situational factor became the prime instigator of poor mental health of the workers. Job satisfactoriness was central to the author's interpretations and it constituted the link between gratification and deprivation in the total job situation and the mental health effects of these conditions. Job attitude was subsumed under job satisfactoriness. Personal and social characteristics of the individual accounted for observed differences among individuals, but mental health differences between occupational groups were attributed only very slightly to the personal variable. The personal attribute and the current situational variable represented by occupations were dichotomous, but the effects tended to be additive. Poorer mental health in the low-skilled worker was interpreted as a result of inability to perceive progress toward the attainment of a strongly desired goal essential to that person's self-concept as a worthwhile person. Persistent failure lowers self-esteem, creates dissatisfactions with life, anxiety, social withdrawal, narrowing of goals and aspirations, and in combination, a picture of poor mental health. Kornhauser warns that the present-day picture of "wantlessness" of many workers who have readjusted their needs, aspirations, and hopes---causing lack of motivation, has to be changed. Man must redefine his aims in order to better his mental health, so that with a congruency between his personality needs and the nature of the job characteristics, opportunity and demands will be established.

78. Kuhlen, Raymond G. "Needs, Perceived Need Satisfaction Opportunities, and Satisfaction with Occupation," Journal of Applied Psychology, 47 (February, 1963), pp. 56-64.

Assuming that major motives are satisfied in work and career situations, those whose needs are stronger than their perceived occupational potential for satisfying those needs, should feel frustration and be less satisfied with their occupation than those who perceive occupational potential as greater than their needs. Since a career role tends to be primary with men, these relationships should hold to a greater degree among men than among women. The need for achievement should be particularly important in relation to occupational satisfaction.

The writer used 108 men and 95 women high school teachers, most in their 20's and 30's. Three instruments were used: Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, a questionnaire asking for ratings of satisfaction with present job and occupation, and Personality Types and Occupations which measured perceptions of need-satisfaction potential by describing a person with a need and asking how well he would be satisfied with teaching. Discrepancy scores were computed by subtracting the index number assigned to strength of need from that for the perceived need satisfaction of the occupation so that negative discrepancies identify areas of possible frustration. It is possible that a person whose need was low might feel frustration even with a great opportunity for satisfying it if, at the same time, there were pressures in the occupation for him to rise higher than his need. A distribution was also made of the ratings of the perceived need satisfaction of teaching for a person with high achievement need, with high exhibition need and with high change need. The discrepancy between the strength of one's need and the perceived potential of the occupation for satisfying it, was correlated with the satisfaction with occupation ratings.

There was a positive, although low correlation of discrepancy scores with occupational satisfaction for men, with generally lower correlations for women. Even for the achievement need, the correlation was lower than would be expected, particularly for men, although it was definitely related to satisfaction. The study seemed to show that teachers, as a group, and women even more so than men, are not career-minded and do not look to a career as a major source of satisfaction. The ratings showed a wide range and illustrated that perceptions of an occupation may vary widely from one person to another.

79. "Labor Paradox: Teenage Jobless Rate Stays High, But Firms Say Youths Are Scarce," Wall Street Journal, 167 (January 6, 1966), pp. 1+.

As the economy and the Vietnam draft call both expand, there is an increased number of jobs being made available to teenagers. In order to fill these openings, employers have had to lower their educational requirements and raise their pay scales;

however, teenage unemployment has remained high. The reason for this seeming paradox is that, while the jobs are available to those with certain minimal skills, most of today's unemployed teenagers do not have these necessary, basic skills. Those who do, get good jobs and better pay; the others remain out of work while the jobs remain unfilled. Ironically, this has led to an improvement in the situation of the semi-retired who will accept a job for the minimum wage, which a teenager will turn down. Although the unemployment figure for Negro youth is still about twice as high as that for whites, their prospects are improving. Firms unable to hire white teenagers are forced to hire Negroes if they want to fill their openings. Federal action to eliminate racial discrimination in hiring practices has been of some benefit to this minority group.

80. Landis, E. W. "Back Out on the Street?--Muskegon Project Prepares Them For Job," Michigan Education Journal, 43 (May, 1966), pp. 19-20+.

The Muskegon Area Skill Training Center has been designed (with the use of federal funds made available through the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962) to help unemployable youngsters--dropouts between the ages of 16 and 21. They come from severely impoverished environments and lack the basic education, attitude, motivation, and employable skills necessary for getting and keeping a job. The objective or goal is simple--to make them employable within a matter of months. It is felt that they will succeed at the Training Center, although they failed in public schools, because the Center's goal is both close and concrete and its curriculum is pointed directly and specifically toward the attainment of that goal.

81. Landsberger, Henry A. and Mary Ann Coghill. "Young Workers Speak Their Minds," Supervisory Management, 5 (September, 1960), pp. 12-18.

This paper presented findings concerning the work attitudes of a group of young workers.

Eighty-eight young workers were surveyed as a part of a larger follow-up study of 524 high school graduates. As juniors and seniors, they completed a questionnaire measuring their attitudes toward adults. At a later date, they were re-tested. Fifty-four men and 34 women with a year or more of experience on the job were used; their average age was 19.

A majority of the men, but not of the women, attributed their greater acceptance by adults in the non-school world, as compared to when they were in high school, to the fact that they now had a job. Many of the young workers, particularly the men, valued their jobs as a means of gaining status. Though generally satisfied, one-third were unhappy because the demands of the job were not explained in detail and one-third because the job did not give them an opportunity to show what they were capable of doing. The women were less interested in challenging responsible jobs but were more concerned with the personal treatment they received. One-third of the women agreed with a third of the men that the job was too demanding.

82. Lee, H. C. "Do Workers Really Want Flexibility on the Job?," Personnel Journal, 42 (March, 1965), pp. 74-77.

This article was concerned with employees' perceptions of the computer installation (EDP) in their work environment and on work satisfaction.

The study was conducted in 1963 in the general office of a shoe manufacturing company. This office planned and controlled activities in all functional areas. In 1955-56, after management had decided to install EDP, many changes were made in the three departments. The number of employees were reduced. Of the 120 remaining, 40 had remained on the same job though their work methods were altered. These 40 were interviewed to ascertain how the EDP applications had affected their work environment and the level of their work satisfaction. The responses were scaled into five weighted classifications.

The respondents believed that an increased number of deadlines had been imposed on the jobs. They also felt an increased amount of cooperation was required. In addition, they thought their freedom and flexibility in adopting their own work methods had been reduced. However, they also felt there was a greater variety of tasks in their jobs. The clerical employees felt there had been a marked decrease in their ability to control the pace and sequence of their work, but the managerial employees were relatively more content with working conditions. These findings suggest a re-examination be made of the part played by freedom and flexibility of operating in insuring work satisfaction.

83. Leonard, George E. "A Careers Class with a Special Mission," Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 9 (Spring, 1961), pp. 193-195.

A course designed specifically for students with career development problems was established in a New York high school. Students who were either failing because of unrealistic goals (pursuing difficult curricula) or achieving poorly because of lack of purpose (under-achievers) enrolled in the course.

Through the use of questionnaires, two surveys were conducted in order to determine the relative impact the course had on the 30 students enrolled.

The initial survey's results showed that the students became more certain of their occupational choices and more realistic in their self-perception. A follow-up study of the group was made one year later and of the original number, only four were still failing. The program was considered worthwhile and is continuing.

84. Levine, Louis. "Youth--A New Employment Service Focus," Employment Service Review, 1 (May, 1964), pp. 1-5.

The problem of unemployment disproportionately affects one segment of the youthful population and a corresponding segment of the total labor force--those most severely disadvantaged by lack of education and skill, cultural deprivation, and discrimination. Youth unemployment is related to the broader problem of poverty and the unequal opportunities provided by existing institutions. During the 50's, the Employment Service initiated cooperative programs in high schools primarily for those intending to enter the labor force upon graduation. These programs consisted of testing services, occupational information, guidance talks, counseling interviews, job referrals, and special services to dropouts. Manpower programs of the 60's have aimed at increasing employability. New legislation aims at extending the programs to reach disadvantaged youth. The age at which youngsters may qualify for training allowances has been lowered and the training period lengthened. Pending National Job Corps proposals and Work-Study programs within the communities are aimed at this group. The Employment Service must realize that today's youngsters differ from the ones they usually dealt with in the past. These youth must be reached and dealt with in other ways. Work must be done outside of the local office. Counselors must be able to deal with persons for whom middle-class standards and values have little meaning or relevance. In addition, group counseling techniques should be expanded. Trained, nonprofessional "indigenous" workers should be available to aid counselors. It is necessary that adequately prepared and supervised volunteers be used to relieve the shortage of professional personnel. Counseling sessions should be personalized and extended. New tests must be developed because existing ones are inadequate for the under-educated and the culturally deprived. In general, the philosophy and goals of the employment service must be reoriented. Although increasing the employability of youth leads to suitable job placement, this may involve a long process with many prevocational phases. The employment service must become less placement-oriented in the narrow sense and more alert to a broad range of manpower services.

85. Levinson, Harry. "Employers Ask: Whatever Happened to Loyalty?," Public Management, 48 (June, 1966), pp. 160-166.

The concept of loyalty prevalent in the past, characterized by a paternalistic view of management, is no longer apropos; it has been made obsolete by changing circumstances. There has been a drastic change in the ability required to rise in the ranks, and hence, in the rewards which loyalty alone can confer. People's expectations have changed; they want individual recognition and respect, and achievement of their goals, in addition to fringe benefits from organizations. People live differently today: there has been an erosion of extended family ties, leading to an erosion of individuals' relationships to organization. Mobility means job changes. Youth are more independent and have more training and confidence with which to get jobs. When they enter an organization, they expect a certain amount of freedom to act independently, to take a task and accomplish it, and to be heard. This means that paternalism is dying, and with it the old ways of achieving loyalty. The new form emerges in several ways, most importantly through identification and assimilation. Bonds of affection are now the trust bond of loyalty. The new leaders in industry today must create the conditions in which loyalty naturally evolves. First, it must be recognized that loyalty is a feeling of living according to values which have special importance. To create the conditions for loyalty, the manager should: (1) be open with subordinates; (2) make it possible for people to meet together as responsible adults to solve mutual and common problems; (3) offer both the opportunity and the challenge to be responsible both for their work and for the fate of the organization; and (4) recognize that loyalty can no longer be equated with blind obedience.

86. Levinson, Harry, Charlton R. Price, Kenneth J. Munden, Harold J. Mandl, and Charles M. Solley. Men, Management, and Mental Health. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1962.

Much of how a person feels about himself and his world derives from his work experience. This involves both the individual's task and immediate work group and the organization of business and industry, as the context for these work situations. This study of the relationships between work and mental health was conducted by the Division of Industrial Mental Health of the Menninger Foundation.

A midwestern utility company was chosen for study. The company was divided into 12 geographical areas with local control but with lines of communication and control from the main office down to the work crews. The company offered not only a pattern of varied reactions to community settings, but also many types of work groups and work situations. The men on the line crews had control over the division of their work, but interdependence and interpersonal relationships were extremely important because of the danger of the work. The office groups had constant contact with customers. At the generator and compressor plants, usually located in open country, the workers were isolated, the plants were noisy, and the work demanded constant attention to details. Additionally, there were warehouse crews and truck drivers. Managers were also often involved in public relations in their communities. The company had steadily grown, partly through taking over small local utilities; it had a history of stability, and it offered security to employees. The study was exploratory in nature. For two years, the research team observed and interviewed. Diaries of observations and ideas were kept, and 874 people from all parts of the company were interviewed.

Three central concerns were identified: interdependence with the company; the comfort of relationships with fellow employees, superiors and subordinates; and the experience of change, both in personal life and in the company. These concerns were subtly interrelated and were reciprocal, and people had strong expectations related to them. This reciprocal process involved all of the various aspects of work life. Both the company and the employees talked about their expectations as though the other side was obliged to fulfill them. This series of mutual expectations was referred to by the authors as the psychological contract. The parties to the contract may not even be aware of these expectancies, but management and workers alike were informally governed by them in their relationships with each other. The way in which this contract was affirmed, altered, or denied was related to mental health. With this thematic approach the authors discussed various aspects of the work situation and the impact of company organization.

87. Ley, Ronald. "Labor Turnover as a Function of Worker Differences, Work Environment and Authoritarianism of Foremen," Journal of Applied Psychology, 50 (December, 1966), pp. 497-500.

The labor turnover rate of a television picture-tube company was investigated with respect to biographical data, work environment, and authoritarianism of foremen.

Two groups of hourly workers (N = 100 each), who received similar wages and worked at the same plant, were used as the sample. One group had worked for the company over a year (Steady Group), the other, less than a year (Turnover Group). For purpose of analysis, the Turnover Group was divided into Immediate (those leaving in the first month) and Delayed Groups. Three supervisors ranked 18 foremen on authoritarianism.

Comparison of the groups in each of three shifts for which work environment varied considerably showed the only significant variable related to turnover to be the shift itself; turnover was higher on the second and third shifts. Three of the biographical items showed differences between the Turnover and Steady groups. The Turnover Group was younger, held more jobs in the two years before joining the company, and had higher wages on their last job. This suggested personal maladjustment and general dissatisfaction, but this could not be measured by the data. The Immediate Turnover Group had more education and received higher wages on the last job than the Delayed Group. Higher turnover on the second and third shifts might have shown that the higher pay on these shifts was not sufficient incentive. A high correlation of .76, between turnover and foremen authoritarianism, was the most significant finding, showing that workers were more likely to quit if assigned to an authoritarian foreman.

88. Locke, Edwin A., Patricia C. Smith, Lorne M. Kendall, Charles L. Hullen, and Anne M. Miller. "Convergent and Discriminant Validity for Areas and Methods of Rating Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, 48 (October, 1964), pp. 313-319.

The problem was to determine the convergent and discriminant validity of four graphic rating methods in five areas of job satisfaction. Discriminant validity answers the question as to what particular areas of satisfaction can be reliably discriminated. Convergent validity refers to the particular methods that are most adequate and meaningful: predictive validity, which would evaluate validity on the basis of behavior, is inapplicable to satisfaction studies. Job satisfaction is viewed as an effective response resulting from experience on the job which will affect behavior directly under certain circumstances. It is, therefore, a dependent, rather than an independent, variable.

The sample consisted of a random selection, by diversity of jobs and individuals, of 133 employees in two companies. Job areas chosen were work, pay, promotions, supervision, and people. Three scales were given to all employees in both groups: a faces scale showing six different facial expressions in which the employee checked the one closest to his feeling; a direct graphic scale in which the subject marked the point along the line indicating his satisfaction; and triadic graphic scales which added scales in which employee marked the point for the best job and the worst job he could imagine. A boxes scale was used in interviews with one group only in which the subject marked off an area of the box equivalent to his degree of satisfaction. Using a model proposed by Campbell and Fiske, convergent validity was measured by the agreement of different methods in the same area. Discriminant validity was demonstrated by two criteria. Two methods of measuring an area should agree more than with another method of measuring other areas, and the correlation within the same area across different methods should exceed the correlation between different areas within the same method.

The faces scale rating method followed by the direct graphic yielded the best results. All areas adequately satisfied both criteria, but the pay, promotion, and supervision areas showed greater discriminant validity than work and people.

89. Lockwood, Bonnie and Alice Rector. "Orientation of Students Employed as Part-Time Office Workers on a University Campus," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 39 (November, 1960), pp. 222-223.

Southern Illinois University, recognizing the need for an expanded program to meet the needs of competent youth seeking financial assistance via part-time work and realizing the limitations of employing inexperienced, immature students to accomplish work that was necessary to the functioning of the University, established a program in several areas of work. The University used a variety of methods: (1) pre-school workshops; (2) on-the-job training; and (3) in-service training such as study courses, seminars, and weekly (non-credit) class laboratory work. Giving the student concentrated information prior to beginning a job does not insure that he will completely understand his specific functions in his particular work, nor does it guarantee that the student will use the information as instructed. However, reports from supervisors, from the student participants, and from the staff indicated that the workshops were an effective orientation procedure. The program lessened the details of breaking-in a new employee, afforded some degree of uniformity in office techniques throughout the campus, and promoted better supervisor-student relationships by making the student aware of his obligations and responsibility to the success of the work program. The well-oriented student office worker entered the job with a greater degree of efficiency and self-confidence, with knowledge of the general policies of the work program and its relation to other phases of student life, and with an awareness of the value of part-time employment to the University and to the student's educational experiences.

90. Lodahl, Thomas M. and Mathilde Kejner. "The Definition and Measurement of Job Involvement," _Journal of Applied Psychology_, 49 (February, 1965), pp. 24-33.

Job involvement is the degree to which a person is identified with his work and the way his performance affects his self-esteem. It is probably affected by values that are internalized at an early age. The job-involved person is not necessarily satisfied. Previous research tends to show that job involvement appears to be factorially independent of other job attitudes, relatively stable over time, relatively unaffected by changes in the work organization, and related to social nearness of other workers. The author developed a scale for measuring job-involvement and some of its correlates.

Statements relating to job-involvement were collected, submitted to judges, statistically tested, and the 40 items retained cast into a Likert-type scale. The scale was administered to 137 nurses in a large general hospital. Factor analysis produced five important factors: (1) an attitude of indifference, with work necessary to satisfy other needs, often with initial great expectations about work; (2) highest job-involvement, perhaps higher than is normal in our culture; (3) high involvement and a strong sense of duty toward work; (4) negative feelings of guilt over unfinished work; and (5) pride in the organization, general ambition, and upward-mobility desires, similar to "participation" in previous studies. The scale was then tested on engineers and graduate business students.

It was found that job-involvement was a multidimensional attitude that could be scaled with adequate, but not high reliability. The scale items seemed to be general over different populations because the same factorial structure appeared in groups of engineers and nurses. The scale discriminated among groups and had plausible correlations with other variables, and the 20-item scale developed in this research had the same factorial content as job satisfaction for a group of engineers. The study was limited by the narrow range of occupations sampled. Further research is needed to identify more specific concomitants of job-involvement. The present results showed job-involvement was affected by local organizational conditions (mainly social) and by value orientations learned early in the socialization process. Social class data does not relate to job-involvement. Job-involved people seem to be characterized by ambition, upward mobility, and general social motivation.

91. McBain, William. "What Can Be Done About Job Monotony?," Personnel Administration, 26 (May-June, 1963), pp. 24-30.

This article discussed a theory of monotony proposed by D. O. Hebb's "arousal hypothesis," which suggested that alertness and efficient response to the environment depend to a great extent upon the amount of stimulation change to which the individual is exposed.

An experiment was designed to study the effects of irrelevant stimulus changes on performance of a monotonous task. Subjects hand-printed seven pairs of letters repeatedly in the same sequence. An individual rate was set for each subject based on three-fifths of his average rate on the two fastest of three pre-trials.

The findings suggest that alertness is not a unitary characteristic in work behavior, that the addition of highly variable noise increased the accuracy of performance. It was suggested that susceptibility to errors on a monotonous job may be rather a stable and predictable characteristic of the individual. Another study showed that although females were more often employed in monotonous jobs, there was no evidence to indicate they made fewer errors.

92. McGregor, Douglas. The Human Side of Enterprise. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960.

Management philosophies affect employee motivation at all levels. Managements' policies may seem fair and logical to management but are often based on an unconscious theory about the nature of the worker and ways of managing him that is contrary to the real nature of man. Theory X is used as a term to designate the prevalent theory of management. The three basic suppositions involved in it are that most people dislike work, that enticements such as fringe benefits or the threat of unemployment must be used to make them work, and that people want to be directed rather than allowed to think and act independently. Some managers believe the average person is permanently arrested in his development in early adolescence. Many workers who seem to harbor this feeling are the product of the theory. The impact of the growth of technical and scientific personnel has made management change its theories in regard to these workers, but they are considered as a special group different from other workers. Theory Y recognizes the interdependence of management and employees and applies the findings of behavioral research. People's attitudes toward work result from their experience with it. Authoritarian methods may seem to get results, but their undesirable effects in the end defeat management's purposes.

People will set goals for themselves if they stand to gain some reward, e.g., money, advancement, or self-satisfaction. Proper motivation can produce a self-regulating work force. Managers must understand themselves and their effects on other people. Management training should be a process of maturing.

93. Madden, Joseph. "What Makes Work Difficult?," Personnel Journal, 41 (July-August, 1962), pp. 341-344.

This study attempted to determine what makes work difficult.

The subjects were 37 non-commissioned officers in the Air Force. The first test asked the subject to describe three tasks which he had found most difficult to learn and why, the second asked for three tasks which he found most difficult to perform and why. The reasons were independently sorted into 10 categories: pressure, working conditions, attention, interpersonal relations, frustration, training, regulations, forms, aptitude, and unclassified.

Fairly high agreement between judges in classifying indicated that a set of difficulty dimensions existed and that their number was small enough for operational use. A large proportion of the statements suggested environmental conditions were the source of difficulty. Among the "difficult to perform" tasks, working conditions and attention alone appeared to be clear-cut reasons for difficulty in the sense of being characteristic of specific tasks. No one thought physical effort was a source of difficulty. If a person had not learned to perform a task, he considered it difficult. Reasons indicated that difficulty in learning was due to improper or inadequate training.

94. Malinovsky, Michael and John Barry. "Determinants of Work Attitudes," Journal of Applied Psychology, 49 (December, 1965), pp. 446-451.

This investigation analyzed elements in work contributing to attitudes of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with a blue-collar sample, since most previous studies used white-collar and professional workers.

Male maintenance employees (N = 117) at a large university were given a Work Attitude Survey with 20 motivator (intrinsic) and 20 hygiene (extrinsic) items in a Likert-type 5-point rating scale. There were four items representing each one of the 10 work attitude variables taken from Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory of job satisfaction. The results were factor-analyzed in two stages. A set of four questions gave a score for overall satisfaction.

Twelve factors were extracted from the first-order factor analysis, most of them referred exclusively to intrinsic or extrinsic variables, but three expressed employee reactions to both. The second-order analysis produced two factors, Intrinsic (containing salary which had been extrinsic in some previous studies) and Extrinsic. However, the factor loadings showed a relationship between motivator and hygiene variables not found in some previous studies. Factor scores representing both factors were related to both job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. Other studies used white-collar and professional groups, who tended to place more emphasis on motivator aspects, while this blue-collar group attached greater importance to hygiene aspects. The hypothesis that motivator variables are most important to job dissatisfaction was not upheld.

95. Mann, Floyd C. and Lawrence Williams. "Some Effects of the Changing Work Environment in the Office," Journal of Social Issues, 18 (July, 1962), pp. 90-101.

This paper described some of the changes which resulted from the introduction of electronic data processing equipment into the accounting functions of a large electrical power company.

Before the change, employees, supervisors, and department heads filled out questionnaires on the work situation. Informal interviews and discussions with people at all levels followed the course of the change through the conversion. After the new system was in use, persons at all levels completed a second questionnaire. Attitudinal data were supplemented by ratings from managerial and supervisory personnel concerning the characteristics of the most predominant jobs existing both before and after the change. Those departments within each division which were not affected by the changeover were used as "control" groups.

The introduction of the new equipment led to a general tightening of the office's task structure. The jobs now required more risk, more understanding of the total system and a greater degree of interdependence. While employees working on jobs that are part of a highly integrated system of tasks were more satisfied with their job responsibility, the variety and change in their jobs, and the opportunity to develop and learn new things, they did not express increased satisfaction with their jobs as a whole. Standards became exceedingly rigid and deadlines more stringent. Office workers felt that although management's expectations increased, they were now less interested in them as individuals. Significantly higher proportions of white-collar workers felt their future prospects worsened and worried about temporary layoffs or losing their jobs. However, this dissatisfaction was not so intense that they actively began searching for other jobs.

96. "The Many Faces of Work," Occupational Outlook Quarterly, 9 (December, 1965), pp. 24-27.

There is a big difference between the way a job is perceived by the worker and the way it is perceived by an outsider. Job intangibles, cultural pressures, role identities, and conflicts must be considered to obtain a rounded view of an occupation. The U. S. Department of Labor's Office of Manpower, Automation and Training contracted with Vocational Guidance and Rehabilitation Services (Cleveland, Ohio) to study research done in occupational sociology and to make available summaries of the findings. The resultant manuscript, Abstracts of Sociological Literature on Occupations, is of use to the counselor. Each abstract is four to six pages long, covering a different occupation, describing the source and methods with a section headed "Implications for Counseling." Besides individual occupations, there are abstracts describing some industries. The abstracts are available at 87 depository libraries, chiefly at colleges and universities.

97. Masih, Lalit K. "Career Saliency and Its Relation to Certain Needs, Interests, and Job Values," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 45 (March, 1967), pp. 653-658.

The purpose of this study was to examine the concept of career saliency and its relationship to personality values. Career saliency is defined as the degree to which a person is career motivated, the degree to which an occupation is important as a source of satisfaction, and the degree of priority ascribed to occupation among other sources of satisfaction. It is hypothesized that: persons with high career saliency will place less emphasis on social interaction and heterosexual activities, have greater need for achievement and endurance, have a greater interest in higher-level occupations; in their selection of occupations by men will show greater desire for interesting and stimulating jobs, for prestige, for freedom of expression, for fame, and for independence, rather than for steady work. It was expected that significant sex differences would exist.

Sixty-eight men and 118 women, upperclassmen at Syracuse University, selected from tests and interviews, were grouped as high, medium, or low on the basis of career saliency. The tests used were the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey and the Strong Vocational Interest Blank.

Sex differences were highly significant. The greatest number of women were in the low saliency group in contrast to a small number of men. Differentiations in saliency groups were not as clear-cut as expected. Occupational level scores were positively correlated with career saliency. Needs for heterosexual activities, achievement, and endurance appeared to be significant variables. Desire for prestige, steady work, and fame did differentiate the group to some degree, but not as significantly as hypothesized.

98. Mason, Ralph E. and Peter G. Haines. Cooperative Occupational Education and Work Experience in the Curriculum. Danville, Illinois: Interstate Printers and Publishers, 1965.

To present an overview of the needs of the work world, this book was logically and sequentially divided into the curriculum patterns involving the work environment, and into the planning, organizing, and maintenance of a successful cooperative education program. The basic ideas behind this book were that (1) vocational education has developed into a specific education for entrance into a vocation and that (2) choosing a career and preparing for an occupation are the major problems confronting youth. Since technological advances may bring changes in the need for a specialized skill, mastery of a skill does not guarantee the security of a life-long job. Keeping up with new advances that develop from his basic skill area will help the worker maintain his standing in the work-world. With the exception of requirements basic to curriculum set-up, no suggestions on formulations of guides have been offered that can facilitate youths' transition to a work environment and which deal specifically with socio-psychological aspects.

99. Mellenbruck, P. L. "Recognizing Worker Attitudes in Job Assignments," Personnel Journal, 43 (December, 1964), pp. 607-609.

This article reported the development of an instrument which would help to predict whether an employee will like or dislike his work before he begins it.

During the developmental phase, a large number of production and clerical employees were questioned about various aspects of their jobs. From their responses an attempt was made to isolate those aspects of the job which seemed to involve attitudes rather than skills. This resulted in a compiled list of job attitude factors which were present in all kinds of clerical and production jobs. Workers were systematically canvassed in different kinds of plants and offices in order to obtain as complete a coverage of attitude factors as possible. These were developed into items in the form of a questionnaire and then administered to representative production and clerical workers.

The main findings of this early administration to persons already on the job revealed a marked defensiveness, apparently because the employee felt impelled to mark as "liked" the various factors which were present in his current job. The form was changed to provide a more non-direct approach, which proved to be more successful.

100. Meltzer, Hyman. "Age Differences in Happiness and Life Adjustment of Workers," Journal of Gerontology, 18 (January, 1963), pp. 66-70.

This article attempted to contribute knowledge of what workers at various age levels thought about their state of happiness, the amount of recognition they received, their degree of enjoyment of work as against leisure, and their preference for steady work versus advancement. Also investigated were self-concepts and perceptions of others.

The subjects were 257 employees of one company divided into four age groups. Differences in satisfaction were statistically analyzed.

A worker's perception of his share of happiness increased with age with large differences in all age groups, while the belief of a worker's share of recognition does not differ between age groups, although there is a slight negative trend associated with age. Work was increasingly more important with age, whereas leisure (spare time) decreased significantly. With increased age there was an increased interest in steady work and a decreased interest in advancement. Hope for advancement was low in the youngest group, decreased in the older group and was virtually absent in the oldest group. The correlations of share of happiness with self-concepts ranged from .38 to .45. Inconsistent correlations were found in the perceptions of others.

101. Meltzer, Hyman. "Mental Health Realities in Work Situations," American Journal of Ortho-Psychiatry, 33 (April, 1963), pp. 562-565.

The complex personality of each individual in the total work situation is the concern of orthopsychiatry's contributions to industry. The author stressed the cultivation of a positive mental hygiene program, conducive to an emotional atmosphere which invites self-development and the "actualization of those skills, abilities, and experiences that are productive as well as satisfying." A planned program includes appraisal interviews, induction interviews, follow-up contacts, daily rounds, departmental meetings, counseling, foremen meetings, supervisory training programs, exit interviews, and psychotherapy, all of which are directed toward improving an individual's mental health. The industry described had its emotional format set in 1942. It was fairly consistent in its demands, but conscious of the human factors involved. Firmness, rather than rigidity or looseness, was the company's goal, and workers were encouraged to express opinions. In order to deal with problem situations, the practice of making rounds was established to solve immediate happenings as well as to gain "tools" to solve more persistent problems. Situations involving tensions, arguments, and favoritism, can usually be dealt with when a crisis arises if someone is available at the precise moment. More enduring problems that are handled off the job but which directly affect the worker are the wide variety of marital difficulties and problems of ego support. The above program can only work in a setting that permits and encourages human values and potentials, not in an authoritarian situation.

102. Miner, J. B. The Management of Ineffective Performance. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963.

The purpose of this book was to provide business managers and managers-in-training with a "synthesis of available information on work performance and with a method of dealing with individuals who are not meeting established standards of effectiveness." Performance analysis was predicated on the belief that to do anything about the problem, one must understand the factors which result in ineffective performances. Four of these factors were personal, three were social, and two were environmental. They were as follows: (1) intelligence and job knowledge; (2) emotions and emotional illness; (3) individual's motivation to work; (4) physical characteristics and disorders; (5) family ties and problems; (6) work groups; (7) the company itself; (8) societal demands and values; (9) situational forces within the worker's environment. The author attempted to integrate experience and scientific data into recommendations for action. He presented both the theoretical framework and a series of case histories, each followed by a performance analysis. These case histories were presented as evidence for his contention that ineffective performances were one of the major problems facing modern business management. He stated that his approach was that of clinical, rather than social or experimental psychology of industry. The clinical goal is to bring about a major change in the performance of a rather small group of people, whereas the others attempt to bring about a small change in the performance level of all the workers. In addition, it deals with all relevant factors, rather than with either situational or motivational factors.

103. Morland, J. K. "Kent Revisited: Blue-Collar Aspirations and Achievements," in Arthur B. Shostak and William Gomberg (eds.), Blue-Collar World. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1964, pp. 134-143.

This study was the result of a revisit to the Piedmont South area originally studied to investigate the way of life of blue-collar mill workers. The purpose of the later study was to determine whether or not the mill village continued to form an hereditary occupational group.

The author interviewed over 100 Kentians, mostly heads of families, to see if changes had occurred in jobs and residences, how much schooling their children had received, and what types of jobs they had entered during the past decade. Responses to a questionnaire on educational and occupational aspirations were obtained from students to ascertain the extent to which the "enclave" persisted; what factors were involved, particularly the effect of the social milieu, schooling, and aspirational influences.

The results of the study showed the enclave of village areas had persisted, that the family heads continued as blue-collar mill workers, and their children, during this 1948-1958 decade, followed their parental occupations despite the obvious fact that they had more years of formal education and did not desire to become mill workers. Therefore, the author concluded, non-personal factors were responsible for the persistence of the enclave, rather than a lack of ambition for upward mobility on the part of the children. The author posed the problem of what is the extent of "pull" of other types of enclaves on aspiration levels and occupational choices in existence today, and in which type and how the demise of other enclaves occurred.

104. Murray, Evelyn. "Work: A Neglected Resource for Students," Personnel Guidance Journal, 41 (November, 1962), pp. 229-233.

A large proportion of urban youth who drop out of school do not have an opportunity to develop responsibility and initiative. They have no way of obtaining a feeling of accomplishment. Dropouts enter an unfavorable labor market because the school curriculum has not met their needs. One out of five dropouts (under 18) was unemployed in 1961. Boys experience more difficulty than girls. The new technical high school is not planned to meet the needs of those of lower ability. Classes are needed for the unskilled and semi-skilled workers (e.g., maintenance, hotel, restaurant workers, etc.). Much of the world's work must still be accomplished by those with lower ability. Lack of intelligence is more evident in school than in work situations, but many individuals in this group have undeveloped aptitudes. There should be an extension of school-work programs and supervised work while still in school. Some programs presently operating are: (1) Detroit Job-Grading Program--where students work individually under teacher-coordinates in part-time subsidized jobs; (2) Wood School in Indianapolis--with actual shops in which students train and work in various occupations; (3) South Carolina Residential Trade and Technical School--which provides training for the trade and technical job; (4) Youth Conservation Corps--Philadelphia's program for boys over 14 to work in city parks; (5) The "Workreaction" Programs--which exists in several places in California, providing supervised work experience for youth in public work projects; and (6) Distributive and Diversified Education programs which have been a valuable experience for many students. The school leavers are aware of the things that money can buy, but many are discouraged and fear failure in finding their place in American life. The high standard of living makes their situation seem worse.

105. Myers, Scott M. "Who are Your Motivated Workers?," Harvard Business Review, 42 (January-February, 1964), pp. 73-88.

This research is part of a six-year study at Texas Instruments Incorporated. It is based on Herzberg's theory, the focus being to determine what motivates employees, what dissatisfies them, and when they are dissatisfied.

Research began in 1961 with a randomly selected sample of 230 males and 52 females. Salaried scientists, engineers, manufacturing supervisors, wage earning technicians and assemblers were nearly equally represented in the sample. Interviews were used to determine the events producing favorable or unfavorable feelings and the employee's perceptions of the reasons, as well as duration of the intensity of feeling. First level factors, analyzed by job category and sex, were concerned with the actual events; second level, with the reasons for the affect.

Factors motivating employees differed from those causing dissatisfaction. Effective performance depended on both motivator and maintenance needs. When motivators were satisfactory, maintenance needs produced neither satisfaction nor dissatisfaction. If they were unsatisfactory, employees became sensitized to their environment and perceived fault with hygiene (maintenance) factors. Employees were motivated by a feeling of achievement, responsibility, growth, advancement, enjoyment of the work itself, and earned recognition. They were dissatisfied when opportunities for meaningful achievement were not present and project the dissatisfaction onto environmental factors peripheral to the job, such as fringe benefits.

106. Neff, Walter. "Psychoanalytic Conceptions of The Meaning of Work," Psychiatry, 28 (November, 1965), pp. 324-333.

The author analyzed work adjustment in terms of the psychodynamics of work. There are people who have histories of being unable to adequately pursue a work career. Their work histories are erratic and gaining employment becomes a major life problem. Until recently, work adjustment research was mainly centered on limiting effects of the disability of workers rather than on their ability to work, per se. Motivation research emphasized the philosophy of rehabilitation and most textbooks emphasized the psycho-social consequences of unemployability of the physically and emotionally handicapped. Neff feels greater emphasis should be placed on the psychodynamics of work. There is a discussion of Freud's concept of the uneasy and conflicting balance of work and love, of Erickson's developmental stages, in which a unique central task has to be solved and the coping processes of any phase are influenced by the affects, cognition and response patterns connected in prior phases, and of Hendrick's, Lanto's, Menninger's and Oberndorf's concepts.

107. Noland, R. L. "Reflections Before the Employee Appraisal or Development Interview," Personnel Journal, 45 (October, 1966), pp. 541-543.

This article was written as a plea for reflection on the three key factors in a successful interview, the job, the prospective employee, and the interviewer. A thoughtful, deliberative, developmental type of interview will result in both company and employee satisfaction. An appraisal of the intrinsic as well as extrinsic factors of the job and the needs, abilities, and potential of the prospective employee should be made to determine the amount of congruency. A developmental approach to his past work experience should divulge enough background information to correlate his experiential and aspirational levels to the potentials of the prospective job. A careful personal assessment of the motives and emotions of the interviewer should be made so as not to permit non-job performance factors to subjectively influence the appraisal of the value of that employee to the company.

108. Obrochta, Richard J. "Foreman-Worker Attitude Patterns," Journal of Applied Psychology, 44 (April, 1960), pp. 88-91.

This was a study of foreman-worker interpersonal relationships and the attitudes of workers toward their company, job, union, and union leaders. The basic question asked was: If a foreman and worker have favorable attitudes toward each other, will they tend to share attitudes toward the company, job, union, and union leaders, and vice versa?

The data were based on a random sample of 65 hourly workers and 19 foremen, controlling for three variables: sex, race, and length of service. Open-end interviews which covered 25 topics were used. Attitudes were analyzed and rated on a scale from 1 (very favorable) to 5 (very unfavorable) and the degree of difference between attitude of foreman and worker was computed. Attitude ratings were also totaled and converted into percentages for the group and percentage of agreement of foreman and workers.

Foremen and workers agreed most in attitudes toward the company (86.9%), and least in attitudes toward union leaders (54.6%). Hourly workers were more favorable in their attitudes toward the union than were the foremen. Foremen were more favorable toward union leaders than workers and more favorable toward the company than workers. Hourly workers tended to be more favorable toward their foremen than the foremen were toward them. This was explained by differences in criteria used by the two groups in their judging. The foremen were more critical and judged more on production, skill, and punctuality, whereas the workers were concerned more with general personal qualities such as fairness, friendliness and understanding. No significant difference was found to indicate that if a foreman and a worker liked each other they would tend to share attitudes toward the company, job, union, and union leaders. There were too few cases of unfavorable foreman-worker relationships to consider the reverse.

109. Oelke, Merritt C. "We Must Reach the Noncollege Bound," American Vocational Journal, 41 (October, 1966), pp. 16-17+.

The three pronged problems facing educators of noncollege youth are: (1) lack of status of nonprofessional occupations; (2) lack of communication between vocational education and other facets of our society; and (3) teachers and other school personnel are homogeneous in that they have had little first-hand experience or exposure to industrial, technical, and other levels of occupations. This article stressed that the prestige of vocational education can be enhanced through communication emphasizing a credibility factor (trustworthy, well-informed communicators), emotional appeal (which would provide strong incentive for attitude change), and a concern for group norms in attitudes, as well as attention to the individual student's needs. It recommended active participation to understand a class of occupations as a desirable goal.

110. Pallone, Nathaniel J. and Marion Hosinski. "Reality-Testing a Vocational Choice: Congruence between Self, Ideal, and Occupational Percepts Among Student Nurses," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 45 (March, 1967), pp. 666-670.

One of the problems in vocational adjustment is that of accommodating the elements of the self-concept to the reality of occupational requirements; therefore, the adolescent is generally unable to reality-test his occupational choice by direct experience until he has taken the required training. This study, using student nurses who do have an opportunity to test their choice, inquired into the ways in which contact with occupational requirements in the work situation affected the projection of self into the occupational role. Specifically, it assessed the relationship between pre-professional and professional nursing experience and congruency between: (1) self and ideal self-concepts; (2) self-concept and perception of the nurse's occupational role; and (3) ideal self-concept and perception of the nurse's occupational role.

One hundred sixty-eight student nurses enrolled in St. Louis University's School of Nursing and Health Services were selected in groups of 24 to represent each of the four years of the program (supervised experience in the hospital begins at the end of the freshman year), each of the two years of the program for those who already have R.N. diplomas and usually some professional experience, and the graduate program. Hanlon's 1958 Q cards, a series of 50 self-relevant, socially neutral statements standardized on student nurses, were sorted into a distribution from "most like me" to "least like me" or "most like I would like to be," and "most like the ideal professional nurse." Correlations were averaged for each group and compared by class in school and length of work experience, both pre-professional and professional.

Generally higher levels of congruency were found between ideal self and occupational role percepts than between either self and ideal or self and occupational role percepts at all seven levels of nursing preparation. The implication was that the student nurse's perception of herself as she would like to be, rather than as she perceives herself in the present, may influence her choice in selecting an occupational role perceived as providing opportunities for actualizing the ideal self. Much of the process of vocational thinking in self-concept terms appears to be future-oriented, rather than present-oriented. The reality of the work situation, experienced either as a student or professional nurse, had no relationship to vocational thinking in self-concept terms. This would seem to indicate a possibility that the range of experience in planned professional socialization, the impact of the curriculum, contact with "adult" members of the profession, and interaction with fellow aspirants to the profession, may serve to provide sufficient familiarity with occupational role requirements.

111. Parker, Treadway C. "Relationships Among Measures of Supervisory Behavior, Group Behavior, and Situational Characteristics," Personnel Psychology, 16 (Winter, 1963), pp. 319-334.

This study explored the relationships among group performance, situational variables, and supervisory behavior. These questions were examined: (1) Is supervisory behavior related to group performance and attitudes? (2) Are situational variables related to group performance and attitudes? (3) Is group productivity related to worker's perception that job performance is instrumental to the attainment of desired goals?

The research was conducted in 80 geographically decentralized warehouses of a wholesale pharmaceutical company. The work groups averaged 24 workers; each group had a supervisor.

The major findings may be summarized as follows: (1) Supervisory behavior was related to worker attitudes toward supervision but was not related to group performance. (2) Situational variables, including warehouse size and employment security, were related to group attitudes toward supervision and group performance measures. (3) Worker perception that job performance is instrumental to job security was related to group productivity. (4) Correlations among the variables studied yielded three independent dimensions of organizational behavior loosely defined as performance motivation, leadership climate, and worker autonomy.

112. Patchen, Martin. "Absence and Employee Feelings About Fair Treatment," Personnel Psychology, 13 (Autumn, 1960), pp. 349-360.

Some previous studies have accounted for absence rates as related to direct rewards and punishments provided by the work situation. This study examined absenteeism as related to feelings of fair play about promotion and pay.

Four hundred and eighty-seven male, non-supervisory employees of an oil refinery were selected at random with the same proportional to the total employees in each work group. The number of absences during the year were recorded and a questionnaire was used to measure attitudes concerning promotions to date, perception of present promotion chances, and fairness of promotion and pay.

Absences were strongly related to feelings concerning promotions to date, but not to present promotion chances. They were strongly related to feelings of fairness about promotion and pay. The results were interpreted as indicating the importance of feelings of loyalty and obligation in accounting for absenteeism.

113. Pearlin, Leonard I. "Alienation from Work: A Study of Nursing Personnel," American Sociological Review, 27 (June, 1962), pp. 314-326.

Seeman identified five major dimensions of alienation: powerlessness, normlessness, meaninglessness, isolation, and self-estrangement. This study was concerned with powerlessness, which is subjectively experienced, its relationship to some of the structured properties of a mental hospital and the alienation of its nursing staff from their work.

The subjects were the nursing staff of St. Elizabeth Hospital, District of Columbia. Alienation was measured by a four-item Guttman scale, part of an extensive questionnaire for all nursing personnel below the rank of supervisor. Separate questionnaires were used for the supervisors of 156 wards. Alienation was related to the organizational aspects of authority structure, opportunity structure, and work group.

Alienation was found to be most exacerbated under conditions that minimized interaction between superordinates and subordinates and consequently, reduced opportunities for the latter to informally influence the former. Alienation was most likely to occur where authority figures and their subjects stood in relations of great positional disparity; where authority was communicated in such a way as to prevent or discourage exchange; and where the superordinate exercised his authority in relative absentia. The overall picture of the opportunity structure of the hospital was that there were far fewer relatively high positions than there were aspirants for them. Alienation was most marked among the limited-achievers and was remarkably low among the high-achievers. Finally, because behavior supported by group norms can create a sense of personal commitment and voluntarism, it was thought that isolated workers were more subject to feelings that their activities were ruled by outside forces. Also, alienation occurred less frequently among those who had established extra-work friendships with fellow workers.

114. Plunkett, Margaret. "Geographic Mobility of Young Workers," Occupational Outlook Quarterly, 4 (September, 1960), pp. 3-6.

The mobility of people includes industrial, occupational, and geographical dimensions. During the 10-year period 1950-1960, about the same proportion of the nation's population changed their residence each year, even though the overall population increased substantially. Between 1953-58, the primary population shift was to the West. The next strongest movement was from the South. The 20-24 year olds are the most mobile, followed by the 25-29 year olds. Between 30 and 34 years, the proportion drops off markedly, while those over 45 are most settled. The tendency to move is the same for men and women, though women move more from 14-19 and after 65, but are more settled in between. Since 1956, there has been a notable rise in Negro migration. There is a tendency for the better educated to be more mobile. The major reason for moving is to seek employment or to find a better job. Numerous case studies show the influence of the need for work on inducing men to move. Migration for personal reasons is often the case but the availability of jobs around the country makes this possible. The movement of migrant workers is not a matter of personal choice. Since young people show the greatest inclination to move, the overall rate of mobility may increase, because of the increasing numbers of maturing young people. Varying rates of growth in different industries and occupations will be increasing the numbers of professional, technical, managerial, personnel, and service workers in demand. Blue-collar workers will increase numerically but will compose a smaller proportion of the total labor force. The need for industrial laborers will not increase significantly. Farming will offer the fewest opportunities for jobs. Industries have been and are shifting to the West and Southwest. The population, mostly young, will follow. Many financial and psychological problems are bound to arise especially with respect to minority groups in the large city. Children of mobile people are likely to suffer. Cities which receive the migrants also have many problems as they attempt to provide adequate facilities.

115. Preparing Pupils for the World of Work. Detroit, Michigan: Detroit Public Schools, 1962.

The major concerns of this project were to focus on the present and projected demands of the labor market and the employable skills of youth about to enter this market; to make recommendations dealing with the training youth should receive and where they are to receive it; and to consider the relationship among the separate parts of the total educational system of the Detroit Public Schools. The report examined the following in detail: (1) academic problems in the United States; (2) the national socio-economic climate which influences population and employment trends, and their implications; (3) nation-wide needs and trends in youth training; (4) Detroit population and employment trends; and (5) Detroit training programs. The following guidelines were suggested: (1) the improvement of the curriculum in general; (2) ability grouping; (3) guidance and counseling; and (4) world-of-work training for the mentally retarded. In trying to solve these problems, the reporting committee proposed general recommendations for system-wide application relative to comprehensive high schools, special district high schools, schools serving the city-wide area, adult day and evening programs, and building facilities. Other recommendations were concerned with criteria for world-of-work subjects, for additions to the programs in comprehensive high schools, for special district high schools, for central high schools, and for assignment of occupational training to post-high school institutions.

116. Pym, Denis. "Exploring Characteristics of the Versatile Worker," Occupational Psychology, 39 (October, 1965), pp. 271-278.

The writer has made a series of studies of the versatile worker, a concept which embraces those personality variables associated with effective performance in a work environment which is changing both extrinsically and intrinsically. A previous study had identified the following variables in the flexibility factor: favorable attitudes to work-related changes, work aspirations of freedom from control, job interests (scientific, literary, artistic), diversity of educational interests, and general ability. Variables identified as composing the rigidity factor include: work aspirations (structure, financial, security), job interests (mechanical, clerical, computational), work satisfactions, and impunitiveness as a typical response to frustration. If the general hypothesis linking the concept of flexibility-rigidity to versatile behavior holds, then the variables above should point to fluctuation in the performance of workers following changes in their work tasks.

In a British shoe factory, where the introduction of new machinery increased the number of job operations, changed the nature of some jobs, increased worker's individual responsibility, and changed arrangement of work space, a study of 117 semi-skilled female workers was made over a 21-month period. Tests were given one week before change, including Trumbo's scale measuring attitudes to work-related change, Crites scale for measuring work aspirations, and a questionnaire which sought information concerning age, number of machine tasks performed, and diversity of leisure interests. Questionnaires were readministered at the conclusion of the inquiry. The criterion of behavioral response to the innovation was calculated from shifts in the performance of each operative during ten-week periods before and after change.

Expressed reactions toward the change were highly favorable, but were not reflected in output. Six months after the change, 33 per cent were producing less than they had before; 20 months after the change, 11 per cent were still producing less. However, correlating the predictive instruments with each worker's change in output showed a positive relationship. The picture of the versatile operative corresponds closely with some of the newer concepts of positive mental health, in particular Maslow's distinction between growth-oriented and deficiency-oriented motivation. Versatility was associated with growth-seeking tendencies, a favorable attitude to change, a broader pattern of leisure interests, a desire for autonomy in contrast to equilibrium-oriented behavior associated with a preference for regularity and order in one's working life, a dislike of unpredictable circumstances, limited and conventional interests. The greater rigidity in older workers may be in part due to the cultural and work patterns in operation at the time they begin to work. General ability was not tested and so could not be included with the predictors.

117. Randall, Clarence. "When You Fire Him," Journal of Business Education, 39 (February, 1964), pp. 197-198.

This article discusses the difficult decision an executive must make in determining whether he should terminate the services of one of his employees. Human values must be weighed against dollar values. Efforts should be made to predetermine the impact and the long-range consequence to the employee. There are myriad reasons why employees are discharged. These include refusal to obey orders, persistent lateness, damaging group morale, and subtle psychological problems, but the most serious are the violation of trust and incurable incompetence. Part of the difficulty is due to the fact that the employee involved has been a faithful, close associate of the company. The tendency of management is to move swiftly for dishonesty but to procrastinate for incompetence. The author suggests that this should be reversed. The man who has broken trust is in dire need of assistance. Without company support he may never have a second chance to redeem himself. In most situations the actual injury to the company is seldom damaging to its overall operations. When incompetency is permitted to exist, the success of the company is jeopardized. If an incompetent is in the position of authority, progress is blocked. In situations of this type removal of the employee does not question his honor or his personal integrity. Incompetent employees can be discovered through improved methods of selection and training and effectively prevented from holding positions of authority.

118. Ross, Arthur. "Counseling and The World of Work in 1970's," Occupational Outlook Quarterly, 10 (May, 1966), pp. 19-23.

This article presented some of the implications for the counseling and guidance programs, of the education acts of 1965, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), and the Higher Education Act. The ESEA of 1965 was designed to provide funds to elementary and secondary schools attended by children from low-income families. Though guidance programs were not directly mentioned, they can be supported under four titles of the act. Title I concerns community services and continuing education programs. Many projects could be developed under this broad heading. Title II authorizes expenditures for educational materials, films, tapes, and printed materials. Title III provides for projects to advance creativity in education. Title IV authorizes funds for establishing regional research laboratories. The 1965 Higher Education Act adds to the responsibility of the high school counselor, who must work closely with colleges in finding able young people and in motivating them to continue their education. Funds are available to decrease or eliminate financial problems for high school dropouts who wish to return to school. It is imperative that the counselor acquaint himself with specific information about the economic climate and the changing outlook for both old and new occupations. At present, the economy is operating close to capacity. Jobs are becoming more plentiful and there appears to be an increased willingness to hire young and relatively inexperienced workers. The Bureau of Labor Statistics gives short-range as well as long-range guidance. Much material is available. In the future, competition for jobs among youth will be intense. The percentage with college degrees and high school diplomas will increase; consequently, requirements for various positions may tighten. The untrained will be increasingly disadvantaged. Workers must plan to keep pace with changing methods and techniques. It may become necessary for many individuals to retrain.

119. Saleh, S. D., Erich P. Prien, Joy F. Otis and Joel T. Campbell. "The Relation of Job Attitude, Organization Performance and Job Level," Journal of Industrial Psychology, 2 (September, 1964), pp. 59-65.

A positive relationship can be expected between job attitudes and productivity. Within a single organization, there may be differences between work groups in efficiency and this should correlate with favorable job attitudes; specifically, salaried employees should differ from hourly workers.

The sample was drawn from a random selection of employees of two similar plants from the same company, one plant being more efficient than the other. It was composed of both hourly and salaried employees, 595 and 320, respectively, in one plant, and 634 and 78, respectively, in the other plant. The questionnaire was developed and previously used by this company. Factor analysis revealed that a different attitude factor structure was characteristic of each group. In order to make comparisons, responses were dichotomized as favorable or unfavorable, the unfavorable subtracted from the favorable, with the residual representing the level of favorableness of the group on the factor.

There was a positive relationship between favorable attitudes and efficiency, but it is more definitive for hourly than for salaried employees, suggesting that job level affects attitude. In both plants attitudes of salaried workers were more favorable, but both the salaried and hourly group of the workers at the "efficient" plant had more favorable attitudes than those in the "inefficient" group. The hourly group in the "inefficient" plant had the lowest level of favorable attitudes on supervision, recognition of individual, and company policy.

120. Schwartz, Michael. "Why Don't They Want to Work?," Personnel Administration, 27 (March, 1964), pp. 6-10.

This paper discussed the dissonance created, particularly in the Negro youth, by the existence of both the American work ethic and the closed system of opportunities available to them. A specific problem for the Negro youth is that many Negro families are matriarchical either because of the lack of a father in the home or because the father has become unimportant due to his inability to provide for the family. The mother generally has positive attitudes toward work because it is easier for her to find work. This mother-dominance produces a further conflict with prevalent American values. The author concluded that these factors are producing a subculture of unemployables and suggested that not only must the Negro be offered equal opportunity, but he must be educated in order to erase the negative effects of his orientation.

121. Seidman, Joel. "Organized Labor and the White Collar Worker," Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 10 (Spring, 1962), pp. 149-155.

Much fault can be found with the way our educational systems prepare youth for employment. Although the burden cannot be thrown upon the counselor, it is felt that he should not only be helpful and knowledgeable about job openings and levels of skill, but about unionism and collective bargaining. This paper dealt with aspects of the continued spread of unions, in both blue-collar and white-collar occupations, and emphasized that youths should be acquainted with what lies ahead for them in the work world. Youths should realize that union participation can enable them to influence the conditions under which they work, provide them with meaningful relationships with fellow workers, and give them an opportunity to learn leadership skills that enhance their usefulness "as a union member, citizen, or official of management, should the opportunity for promotion be offered."

122. Shartle, Carroll L. "Occupational Analysis, Worker Characteristics, and Occupational Classification Systems," in Henry Borow (ed.), Man in a World at Work. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1964, pp. 285-309.

Occupational analysis was defined as a systematic method of obtaining information by focusing on the tasks, positions, jobs, occupations, industries, and work environments in which people are found, rather than by studying the people, per se. According to Shartle the development of adequate occupational information rests to a considerable extent upon the use of occupational analysis methods. This type of analysis can vary in scope from tasks by individual workers in one industry to national or international surveys. The first type of analysis discussed concerned task, job, and position, in which the emphasis is on the job as performed by an individual. In the second type of analysis, group, occupation, and systems, the focus is on the study of occupational groups, characterized by dissimilar positions. Surveys represent the third type of analysis considered and are used to secure economic, sociological, and psychological data about a number of people. This method has a direct bearing on school programs, counselors and out-of-school situations. The author examined various kinds of occupational classifications. The point was made that occupational classification systems, based on worker characteristics, often overemphasize entrance requirements and give limited attention to the many other factors that are "built into" the job. The youth who graduates from high school may get the first job, but his occupational problems have yet to begin.

123. Sheard, J. L. "Relationship Between Attitude and Knowledge in Employee Fringe Benefit Orientation," Personnel Journal, 45 (November, 1966), pp. 614-617.

The problem was to measure the relationship between employees' knowledge of their company's benefit package and their attitudes toward it. The hypotheses were that the relationship would be relatively low, that at lower levels of knowledge increases in knowledge would be linearly associated with improvement in attitudes, and that at a higher level of knowledge a point would be reached where the increases in knowledge would be associated with diminishing improvement in attitudes.

The sample consisted of 249 new employees of a large nation-wide insurance firm, 60 of which were female clerical workers. The company had a 30-day orientation period immediately after hiring. After six weeks of work, the employees were given a knowledge-of-benefits test which consisted of a 25-item multiple choice and a 15-item Likert-type attitude scale.

The findings suggested knowledge of benefits did not improve employees' attitudes. The relationship was not positive throughout the range of knowledge scores. This implied that there are levels of knowledge where slight increases in knowledge about the benefits would lead to less favorable attitudes. Also, while the relationship was statistically significant, the practical significance of accounting for 8 per cent of the variance in attitude scores by knowledge scores was of some doubt. This degree of relationship between these two variables was certainly not commensurate with the costs of benefits. Thus, the attempts at motivating employees through maintenance factors, such as fringe benefits, appeared to be futile.

124. Sikes, Walter. "Will They Live Happily Ever After?," Supervisory Management, 5 (July, 1960), pp. 18-21.

This paper discusses the elements conducive to a satisfactory relationship between an organisation and its newly hired employee. Despite careful assessment of the potential worth of this individual to the company, in order for the relationship to be successful, the job environment must continue to encourage mutually beneficial development. The four elements identified as promoting profitable associations are: sincere interest in each other as members of the company; communication and exchange of ideas and experiences; participation in mental and physical aspects of the job; and respect for each member of the company regardless of his organizational rank. Further recommendations include thoughtful appraisal of the personality, interests, and objectives of the job participant; if these are incongruent with the organization's purposes, the best alternative is to terminate the relationship.

125. Singell, Larry D. "Some Private and Social Aspects of the Labor Mobility of Young Workers," Quarterly Review of Economics and Business, 6 (Spring, 1966), pp. 19-27.

This study aimed at providing some generalizations about how young people enter the labor force.

A randomly chosen stratified sample of students graduating from high school in Detroit, Michigan, was interviewed to discover how aware they were of job alternatives, wages, and working conditions. At the time of the study, the youths had been in the labor market one year. Strata were according to socio-economic class. Twenty youths from each district were interviewed.

Difficulty in finding a job was related to socio-economic class. The vast majority of the youths relied on informal methods of finding a job, but this may be a result of the lower socio-economic group having fewer connections. Most of the youths considered employment agencies to be "rackets." The study further showed that most of the youths had drifted into a job rather than actually choosing it. However, the youths were interested in obtaining additional job information and most were willing to change jobs. Although interested, they did not systematically seek out information. The article also suggested that a decrease in the unemployment rate would decrease the delinquency rate and consequently the costs of delinquency. The article concluded by making a series of suggestions aimed at improving the labor market.

126. Slocum, J. B. "Individual Adjustments in the Industrial World," Personnel Journal, 45 (July-August, 1966), pp. 399-406.

This article attempted to study the larger industrial scheme in which the worker finds himself. The American worker is part of a complex economic structure so interrelated that his acts depend upon the acts of others causing the individual worker to feel lost. His insecurity is intensified by rapid industrial changes in which he is considered a commodity. There is no frontier in which to escape and his educational preparation may not be sufficient to enable him to rise above his difficulties. Thus far, labor has no political party of importance. The machine age has complicated the problems of the individual. We are in the midst of a development that requires very fine adjustments. Industry does not measure its effectiveness in terms of contributions to social welfare. Profits are not inherently bad, but only become so when the result is the exploitation of employees. Concentration of great wealth in the hands of the few appears dangerous to the many. Corporate stocks may be a means of making the employee more a part of business, yet large-scale industry has widened the gap between employer and employee. Instability of unemployment is very great in a machine civilization. Most unemployed have insufficient reserves to carry them through emergencies. The real strength of any nation lies in the mental life, character, and attitudes of its people. If the majority lose their moral fiber, unrest will develop. Some equalizing plans must be implemented to solve pressing economic problems.

127. Smith, J. R. "Skills and Theory Are Not Enough," School Shop, 25 (March, 1966), pp. 64-66.

Industrial education teachers are seen to have a double role in the education of their students. They must teach both how to earn a living and how to live. This includes teaching students respect for time, equipment, and materials and various virtues, e.g., honesty, integrity, etc. In addition, an honest picture of the trade/service should be given. Students should receive information on trade customs and practices, basic history, labor laws, work conditions, pay scales, opportunities for advancement, social responsibilities and industrial trends, as well as on the purpose of, and the necessity for, learning research skills. To help in securing a job, they should be taught how to prepare a resumé, appropriate behavior in the interview situation, how to complete application blanks, and what to expect in the way of industrial testing and training programs.

128. Smith, Robert. "Attitudes of Teenagers Toward Work and Play," Ann Arbor, Michigan: Institute for Social Research, Report #1, University of Michigan, June, 1965.

The purposes of this study were to examine and define the nature of the ideas youth have about work, as related to the general assumptions which constitute the various parts of work orientation, and to account for the differences, i.e., personal characteristics, social roles and subculture identifications, in the perceptions of these youth.

The sample consisted of 1,254 teenagers from 16 public schools in the Detroit and New York areas and from three Michigan juvenile institutions, and represented the eighth, tenth, and twelfth grades within each school. IQ and achievement information were obtained from school records. The teachers' behavioral ratings of the teenager on such characteristics as helpfulness, friendliness, etc., were obtained. The teenagers responded to various questionnaires, taking about three hours to complete.

It was found that almost all of the teenagers have had both agreeable and disagreeable work and play experiences. Activities were judged to be agreeable or disagreeable on the basis of the extent to which emotional and self-worth needs were satisfied. Most teenagers were positively motivated toward work activities. There was a tendency to concentrate on intrinsic task-features. Task-irrelevant need frustrations tended to be related to disliking work and play. Work tended to be defined as something requiring individual exertion, but which yielded similarly great mental, emotional, and moral rewards, and was disliked when it is either too demanding or a waste of time. Play was seen as a non-cost activity which replenished one's supply of mental and emotional energy used in other types of activities, and was disliked when it created additional tensions.

129. Spencer, L. M. "Work Habits Worth Having," National Parent Teacher, 54 (January, 1960), pp. 20-22.

Enthusiasm and a willingness to carry one's own share of the load are important in work and must be instilled in each child. The U. S. Office of Education reports, after a four-year nation-wide survey, that children want to be useful and to attempt to do things. However, they generally lack perserverance and need encouragement to persist. Interest or purpose make children willing to toil at a tedious task. Praise and blame were found to be effective for learning, with praise eliciting better results. Indiscriminate praise, however, is a poor motivator; praise should be given only for "real" progress. In an experiment on teachers' attitudes, praise received the best response and scolding the next highest. Indifference was ineffectual. Learning is the child's work and, if he is to put forth effort, he must be shown that his accomplishment is valued as important. Parents should impress upon their children that they take their schoolwork seriously. Parent-teacher conferences may prove informative and insightful. Children should perform some chores. Though it may be easier for the parents, children gain much by being permitted to help and by accomplishing things themselves. Parents should examine their own attitudes toward work to see what kind of an example they set. A general guide is to understand children, teach them, and encourage them.

130. Stanton, Erwin S. "New Employee and Company Personality," Personnel Journal, 39 (June, 1960), pp. 61-62.

The success of the new employee depends to a considerable extent on the ease with which he can adjust to the culture and environment of the organization. Like an individual, each organization has a characteristic way of responding and of reacting to a specific situation. The new employee should consider the personality of job management, the company philosophy, goals and objectives, the centralized vs. decentralized management, the participative vs. authoritarian management, and the company climate. The best time to determine whether an individual's personality is compatible with that of the company's is during the employment procedure. If proper safeguards are taken to select the right type of personnel for the company, the training and development of the new employee will be greatly facilitated.

131. Stein, Bruno. "Unions and The Young Worker: Facts and Expectations," Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 10 (Summer, 1962), pp. 196-201.

This paper stressed the significance of the labor union as an economic institution in our society and its impact upon the prospective youthful worker. Every form of institution has a perceived image. Most of the information or knowledge concerning the union results from contact with the local, which is the lowest unit in rank that functions in collective bargaining and is capable of entering into binding labor-management agreements. Despite the signatory effects of its agreements, most workers are not active participants. Workers should understand the structure of the national and local union to delineate the extent and limits of their power and purposes with reference to their own individual needs and those of society. Members should have the opportunity to define their interests. Cognizance should be taken of certain negative aspects which include predatory unionism, restriction of entry, and racial restrictions.

132. Stevens, Robley D. "How to Prepare New Workers," Textile World, 112 (November, 1962), pp. 115-116.

This paper suggested some principles for orienting new employees. The principles cited were: (1) employee indoctrination, which includes making the worker aware of his duties and also an explanation of the company's history; (2) on-the-job training; and (3) a follow-up of the employee's performance. Also included was a nine-point supervisor's check list for preparing the new worker: (1) prepare yourself in advance; (2) welcome the new employee; (3) show interest in the new employee; (4) explain the work of the department; (5) introduce him to the department head; (6) show him the layout and facilities; (7) explain the rules of the company; (8) instruct him in his job; and (9) maintain close contact with the progress of the worker.

133. Stogdill, Ralph M. Managers, Employees, Organizations. Columbus: The Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research, 1965.

This major study examined organizations and groups within them as systems of relationships between supervisory characteristics and behaviors, member satisfactions, and group performances, to determine whether descriptions differed for types of organizations.

Questionnaires were given to managers, the employees working under them, and their superiors in 27 different organizations. The organizations represented six classes: metals industry, chemicals and refining, textiles and accessories, aircraft, divisions of retail chain stores, and divisions of a governmental department. Managers and supervisors were asked for personal data, level of position, job attitudes and expectations, leadership behavior of immediate supervisor, and a RAD scale (measuring the scope of responsibility, authority, and delegation). Employees were questioned concerning the leadership behavior of their immediate supervisor, their work group, and their own job attitudes and expectations. The managers' superior gave group performance ratings. Factor analysis of correlations was used to isolate, for each individual organization, clusters of variables describing each dimension of the relationship. Comparison of factors was unproductive, and analysis of variables across factors was used.

Although some relationships were found that were common to the organizations of a given class, they were few and not definite enough to differentiate between classes. It was difficult to generalize the findings to organizations in general. Supervisory leadership was more highly related to employee satisfaction than to group performance. Supervisory considerateness was related to employee satisfaction with freedom of action and satisfaction with the company. Supervisory behavior was related to employee attitudes toward group morale and cohesiveness, but this was not consistently related to group productivity.

134. Super, Donald E. "The Structure of Work Values in Relation to Status, Achievement, Interests and Adjustment," Journal of Applied Psychology, 46 (August, 1962), pp. 231-239.

The initial reason for this research was to test the assumption that values can be classified as being either intrinsic or extrinsic in nature. If this were true, correlations of items within categories should be greater than those between categories. A second purpose was to identify and describe values, as distinguished from interests, needs, adjustment, and other personality variables.

Content analysis of interviews (focusing on vocational maturity) with 88 adult males, previously used in the author's 1952 career pattern study and determined as typical, were correlated with other measures assessing status, achievement, interests, and adjustment.

No definitive division of values into intrinsic and extrinsic was shown. None of the seven intrinsic values identified were significantly and positively related. People probably seek some intrinsic values, certain rewards, and particular concomitant satisfactions. Of the factors derived, four were value-oriented, two were ambivalent as to value or interests, three were personality and adjustment factors, and one was classified as achievement. This was then put into a centroid factor analysis and 10 factors were derived. The discussion of the factors and their significance was limited to statistical reporting of the loading upon each general cluster.

135. Svetlik, Byron, Erich P. Prien, and Gerald Barrett. "Relationship Between Job Difficulty, Employee's Attitude Toward His Job and Supervisory Ratings of The Employee Effectiveness," Journal of Applied Psychology, 48 (October, 1964), pp. 320-324.

This investigation explored the relationships among job difficulty, employee attitudes toward the job and the job environment, and supervisory ratings of employee performance.

The sample consisted of 110 workers and 130 supervisors of a multi-department company during the process of evaluating jobs preparatory to installing a wage program. In evaluating the job itself, descriptions were obtained by interview, and rated on all 12 factors of the Personnel Research Institute's

Job Evaluation Manual for Clerical and Administrative Positions. Job difficulty was determined by total score. Two questionnaires were developed especially for this project; one was to assess supervisors' ratings of employee performance, the other to measure employee job attitudes in the areas of adequacy of supervision, job satisfaction, management-communications, rewards, advancement, and general morale.

As job difficulty increased, employee attitudes were significantly more positive toward the job, management, communication and opportunity for advancement. Partial correlations showed that the relationship between employee's attitude dimensions indicated increasing complexity of job content and increased contact with people as part of the job were positively related to an employee's attitude toward his job. There was a significant negative correlation between job tenure and supervisors' ratings, which may have been due to particular situations, or to changes in supervisors with new supervisors being friendlier to the newer employees.

136. Swanstrom, Thomas E. "Employment of School Age Youth, October, 1964," Monthly Labor Review, 88 (July, 1965), pp. 851-856.

The number of unemployed youth 16-24 years of age remained unchanged during 1964 at a time when unemployment for older persons declined. Unemployment rates for youth in school, as opposed to those not in school, were nearly equal. There were 17.3 million students in 1964, four and one-half million more than in 1959. Of these, 4.3 million were in the labor force at about the same rate for white and non-white males, but higher for white than non-white female students. At every educational level, student unemployment rates have risen since 1959. Most students are part-time workers with the 14-17 year olds in occupations requiring the least skills. Older students were more likely to be in clerical or professional categories. Contrary to the trend for all men, a larger proportion of male students were working as laborers (non-farm) in 1964 than in 1959. Women students showed an increasing inclination for clerical work. In recent years, much attention has been given to the difficulties in finding a job for 16-21 year old out-of-school youth. In this group, in 1964, about one-half of the females, a third of the white males, and one-half of non-white males were not in school. Nine out of ten boys and six out of ten girls of either racial group, not in school, were in the labor force. Non-whites are more likely to work in agriculture. Young men in non-agricultural industries were concentrated in manufacturing and trade, while girls were more likely to be in the service field. Non-white boys and girls were more likely to be working part time. Out-of-school male youths were concentrated in the two occupations which had the highest unemployment rates—operatives and non-farm laborers. A much higher proportion of whites had white-collar jobs. One-half the white, but only one-sixth of the non-white girls had clerical jobs. In service occupations the proportions were reversed. The unemployment of non-whites was twice that of white youth. Youth unemployment is a grave problem which may well become more serious in the future because the "job finding" difficulties encountered by youth entering the labor force may affect their attitude toward the likelihood of ever acquiring a satisfactory position in the work world. Severe economic and social repercussions will result if job opportunities are not made available to the increasing numbers of unemployed youth.

137. Swanstrom, Thomas E. "Out-of-School Youth, February, 1963, Part II," Special Labor Force Report #47, Monthly Labor Review, 87 (December, 1964), pp. 1416-1424.

Since education and training requirements for entry jobs have stiffened, it is useful to examine the dropouts' and high school graduates' backgrounds as they relate to the problems of unemployment among young persons. Only 30 per cent of the dropouts had followed commercial programs while 38 per cent of male and 50 per cent of female graduates had participated. Few of either group reported participating in a school work program. Only 4 out of 10 reported receiving any employment guidance; more girls received such advice. For those receiving guidance, it appeared to have beneficial results. Graduates were more likely than dropouts to enter post-school training programs. The most common sources of instruction were special schools. A higher proportion who had taken post-high school training found jobs with the learned skills. Dropouts were less likely to have worked while in school. Both graduates and dropouts who had held jobs while in school fared better in the job market. A capsule profile of the unemployed youth showed that dropouts were twice as likely as graduates to be unemployed. One out of six had quit working to seek another job where they could improve their status. Many depended on families for financial assistance. Graduates tended to use more methods for finding work. All were looking for full-time jobs. A greater proportion of graduates than dropouts had worked. Year-around employment at full-time jobs was much more common among graduates. Inability to find work was particularly evident among female dropouts. Since leaving school, 9 out of 10 males had spent most of their time either working or looking for work. Many males had been in the Armed Forces. Some had taken job training and some had done nothing. Among the women, 3 out of 5 had not been in the labor force during most of this period.

138. Taylor, H. C. "Avalanche of Youth into Labor Force," Monthly Labor Review, 88 (May, 1965), pp. 544-546.

This article purported to explain the tremendous numbers of youth entering the labor market despite the trend for larger percentages to graduate from high school and larger proportions of these to go into college and post-graduate studies. Despite these encouragingly large percentages, the actual numbers of inexperienced, immature and untrained youth entering the job market will be astonishingly high. Training has become a major problem. The various training programs, private, company sponsored, and public endowed must be adaptable to change, gearing their needs to the demands of modern technology. It was stressed that the excess unemployment of youth cannot immediately be resolved but with mass training efforts the problem can be met with continual success.

139. "Technical Progress and the Employment and Training of the Young," International Labor Review, 83 (May, 1961), pp. 483-506.

Governments today can look forward to a large supply of available workers from the post-war baby boom, but planning is needed if full employment goals are to be realized. The young labor force must be deployed along the right lines or there may still be local shortages of labor and pockets of unemployment. This article described the steps being taken toward the adjustment of young workers to changing demand patterns in the more industrialized nations throughout the world. Thorough preparation for work means greater employment prospects. Widespread career information and availability of vocational guidance helps youth to decide on their future. Good vocational training widens the job opportunities for those unable to acquire the highest degree of education. Shortcomings in the forecasting of needed new methods and skills and delays in making the necessary adjustments present problems. The adaptability of the workers being trained will be their best tool for future adjustment.

140. Tennyson, W. W. "The Psychology of Developing Competent Personnel," American Vocational Journal, 42 (February, 1967), pp. 27-29.

The Vocational Education Act of 1963 has implications for a concept of career development. The development of human competence involves more than training in technique, primary skill, and technology; it also involves teaching students that a worker's trade is part of a total complex of behavior patterns and social aspirations. Both of these ideas were inherent in the author's concept of building personal competence through career development. An effective teacher must aim to understand all people, but be cognizant that the way he perceives people has been conditioned by his own experiences. One purpose of education should be to make living more significant. Stress should be placed upon people-oriented not machine-oriented values so as to enable the child to build up a self-acceptance image that will provide self-confidence and satisfaction in the work world. Vocational educators, in developing abilities and skills to prepare youth for work, should realize that the child must also learn the subtle, psycho-social aspects of the work situation. Workers must also learn the role expectations, interrelationships, value commitments, and status arrangements within the milieu of the job.

141. Thompson, Aline. "Dealing With Those New Job Jitters," Supervision, 24 (May, 1962), pp. 18-20.

Nearly every new employee gets new job jitters. The problem is how to get over them as quickly as possible. A person's background will determine, to some extent, the severity of the reaction pattern. The more eager an employee is to make good, the more extreme his symptoms may be. The author indicated that the following recommendations would minimize new job jitters: (1) give the new employee a sincere, friendly welcome; (2) be sure the new employee understands the job requirements; (3) emphasize that learning his new job will take time; (4) maintain supervisory contact; (5) frequently expound upon the merits of working for that particular company.

142. Thompson, David. "Youth Employment and Technological Change," Employment Service Review, 1 (May, 1964), pp. 26-27.

Research done by the United States Employment Service demonstration program found the major effects of automation on youth employment opportunities were as follows: (1) new jobs which were normally expected as a result of plant expansions and increased production did not always develop; (2) other traditional sources of entry jobs were tending to diminish or disappear in some areas at a time when entry applicants were increasing as a result of the postwar population boom; and (3) workers without transferable skills, who were being laid off in many areas as a result of automation and technological change, competed with youths for the few entry jobs still available.

143. Thorndike, Robert. "The Prediction of Vocational Success," Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 11 (Spring, 1963), pp. 179-187.

The central concern of this paper was to suggest possible explanations for the failure of tests to predict occupational patterns 12 years in the future, as had been shown in the author's book, 10,000 Careers. This book was a follow-up study of 10,000 of 75,000 men tested as applicants for aircrew training in 1943. Testing was uniform for the group, took one and one-half days, and measured many types of abilities. Twenty test scores were derived.

The follow-up mail questionnaire sought information concerning education, job history, income, success, and job satisfaction. The men were sorted into the 120 occupational groups; the members of these groups differed in significant ways on the tests, but had very wide ranges within each group.

Negative correlations resulted. The predictive ability of occupational success after a 12-year time span was definitely negative, and a series of propositions was offered to explain the results. The group had been pre-screened at about the level of high school seniors. However, they were about the equivalent of those most high school and college counselors advise. The tests were testing for military jobs, but did not differ significantly from commercial aptitude tests. The fact that these tests failed to predict casts some doubt on the predictability of our present tests. A part of the reason may be found in the incomplete coverage of possibly significant domains of interest, temperament, and ability. It is possible that the failure of these tests resides in the heterogeneity of many occupations, the difference between training and work, the limited meaning of success in occupations in which pay and promotions have become institutionalized, and the impact of contingency factors upon the vocational careers of individuals. These are factors that set a fairly low ceiling on any predictions of occupational success.

144. Turner, A. N. and A. L. Miclette. "Sources of Satisfaction in Repetitive Work," Occupational Psychology, 36 (October, 1962), pp. 215-231.

The authors used material from a detailed study of one situation to illustrate the circumstances under which the repetitiveness of a job was not an important source of dissatisfaction or low morale. For repetitive work to be associated with favorable attitudes toward the job, two conditions must be present, neither one of which is sufficient by itself. The product being worked on and the work process must contain some important perceived attractions, and for these attractions to operate in a positive way, important "distractions" must be minimized.

The study was conducted in a large assembly department manufacturing high quality electronic products. Four hundred assembly operators were divided into teams of 3-6 girls. The data were collected over two years through 115 interviews, extensive personal observation of operations, and formal and informal conversations with all levels of personnel.

The study illustrated four kinds of "traction" (object, batch, line, and general production) previously identified by Baldamus. It was found that a repetitive job does not necessarily interfere with improved morale when the product is attractive, when pride in an unusual kind of skill and quality is possible, and when the smooth pull of the process is not interrupted by excessive pressure for quantity, by unwanted interruptions from outsiders, or by too many problems with incoming material and equipment. Mastery of skill and development of rhythm were satisfiers, but in spite of company policy, workers showed a desire for some control over their own pace and methods.

145. Turnquist, C. H. "Galaxy Approach to Education for The World of Work," School Shop, 25 (November, 1965), pp. 25-27.

This was a description of the new approach to vocational education now being used in the Detroit Public Schools. The basic premise was that the 40,000 identifiable job skills in the nation can be grouped into four categories: materials and processes, visual communications, energy and propulsion, and personal services. These were called "galaxies" and the student passed through three phases of this program in order to find the job which most interested him and for which he was best suited. Seventh to ninth graders were at Phase I; they sampled as many different fields as possible. Phase II began in the 10th grade when students went through further exploration but in a reduced field of possibilities; they covered four areas, with a 10-week intensive course in each. Phase III was for 11th and 12th graders. At these grade levels, students with the help of counselors and parents, selected a galaxy in which to concentrate for the next two years. According to his ability, a student passed along one of the four "paths" through every galaxy (science and engineering, technician, trade, occupational path), but all were "open-ended" and a student could progress, by improvement, from one to another. Thus, the program guaranteed that all of its students graduated with saleable skills.

146. Tyler, Leona E. "Work and Individual Differences," in Henry Borow (ed.), Man in a World at Work. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1964, pp. 174-195.

This chapter traced the purpose behind the various types of tests available for use in assessing an individual's achievement, aptitude, interests and personality with an emphasis on individual differences. Research has shown that various predictions are possible but each probability of an occurrence within an individual is dependent upon many other factors besides the one the test purports to measure. Despite this, the use of tests helps counselors in guiding youthful workers toward career choices that are more in keeping with their interests and personality type. The study of man at his job, to determine how he deals with the world of work, should enlarge the understanding of human individuality. It should enhance the field of differential psychology to lay the foundations of a psychology of individual differences comprehensive enough to include our present trait theories, cognitive organization, and control researches, and a consideration of the choices that each individual must make in his unique decision-making process. In the future, it may be possible to directly assess different styles of life and different directions of development. These are necessary for an analysis of individual differences which, in a world of work, are more complex than previously anticipated.

147. "The Unemployed--Portrait in Depth," Occupational Outlook Quarterly, 10 (May, 1966), pp. 31-32.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics issued a report based on an intensive study of roughly nine and one-half million people who were without jobs five weeks or more during 1962. The report covered a three-year period from 1960 through 1962. The unemployment rate for this sample was five times as high as the overall unemployment rate. Three hundred thousand had been out of work for the entire year. Ten years of schooling was the median education level (2 years lower than that of the labor force as a whole). Limited education was a barrier to special training. The less educated had limited knowledge about how to locate available jobs. Average weekly earnings were nearly one-third below earnings of all factory production workers. Unemployment for family heads has wide repercussions; the five million in the survey group had 19 million dependents; their average income was $1400. About 250 thousand would have incomes below the poverty line, even with full-time employment. Half the group received some support from unemployment insurance, social security, private pensions, savings, welfare and borrowing.

148. Veness, Thelma. School Leavers, Their Aspirations and Expectations. London: Methuen, 1962.

This book reported findings concerning the aspirations and expectations of English students as to work and other areas of life.

Pupils at modern, technical and grammar schools, 1,302 in all, from three contrasting areas in the south of England, composed the sample. Since the study was exploratory, no claim was made of representativeness. Questionnaires were devised through a number of pilot studies. Eight instruments were used, including one interview and two essays on the themes of the "best moment of my life" and an imaginary life history. The student was instructed to make this fairly realistic, to consider what was likely to happen to him. The instruments were administered in a classroom setting. The essays were statistically analyzed, but quotations from these essays were used to illustrate many points throughout the book.

In all the areas covered (home, family, work and leisure) the young peoples' aspirations were, for the most part, realistic and related to life as they saw it. Boys showed a greater concern with work and careers than girls. Many boys wanted to be managers, foremen, or small businessmen. Girls were not overly concerned with careers, although they expected to work before and after marriage; they had aspirations for a nice home and nice friends. How much these expectations were influenced by parents and teachers could not be determined. There were some differences by types of secondary education. The technical school children were the most ambitious. Types of jobs aimed for, characteristics of jobs deemed important, and the satisfactions expected in work were discussed according to the orientations of tradition-directed, inner-directed, and other-directed. Motivations were revealed by many of these choices. The dynamics as well as the nature of aspirations were investigated. Results were given for a computer-derived scale of ambitiousness to be used in further research.

149. Venn, Grant. "A Lifetime Concern," American Vocational Journal, 41 (November, 1966), pp. 16-17.

Work must be considered not only as a labor productive contribution, but as the psychological basis for the individual's place in society. In our complex society, each time an individual falls short of his potential, the entire national economy suffers. Emphasis has been placed upon exploratory occupational education programs in the junior high years directed toward the idea of "continuing education."

Schools should recognize the value of developing good work habits and attitudes and give credit for work experiences by including them as part of a youth's school records. Placement centers should be established with the purpose of finding entry jobs that match the potentials of the student. Approximately 30 per cent of our school dropouts occur at the 7-to-9 grade levels. They have insufficient background and miss the vocational advantages of high school; thus, their future opportunities are severely restricted. They become problems to society, are dissatisfied, unprepared for work, and continually plagued by unemployment.

150. Venn, Grant. Man, Education and Work. Washington, D.C.: American Council in Education, 1964.

The thesis of this book was that technology has placed education in the middle position between man and work, yet no level of American education appears fully cognizant of this relationship. Despite the fact that only 20 per cent proceed through college, many college-track-plan curricula cause the dropout of numerous youth. Many educators have not discerned this. The changes due to technology are immediate and national in scope with profound effect on both the social and economic life of the entire nation. Youth are entering a world unequipped with the proper tools for survival. The social and psychological effects of employment as well as unemployment are tremendous. In the place of work, per se, we have substituted the concept of job. Through a job-status, the individual can form some stable conception of himself and his position in the community. Jobs are the youth's initiation into an adult world, but this initiation rite is being denied to many. The relationship between education and work has never been close in this country. The major issues plaguing vocational and technical education were listed and discussed as to their implications and recommendations. One of the main conclusions was that technological change can be met by continuing education for all. However, if present educational institutions fail in their responsibility, the need for occupational education will lead to the development of a separate system of education. A two-year college-type program should make vocational and technical education a major part of its objective, if it can feasibly be established in the community as part of the need for continuing technological education. There is a basic need for understanding the place of secondary education as part of higher education in its preparation of youth for continuing in this program of upgraded quality, and for providing for the youth whose special needs require entry job skills for immediate placement.

151. Vroom, Victor H. "The Effects of Attitudes on Perception of Organizational Goals," Human Relations, 13 (August, 1960), pp. 229-240.

This study tested three hypotheses: (1) the more positive a person's attitude toward an organization, the greater the tendency for him to perceive a similarity between the organizational goals and his own goals for the organization; (2) a person will be accurate in perceiving the goals of the organization with which he agrees, to the extent that he has a positive attitude toward the organization; (3) a person will be accurate in perceiving the goals of the organization with which he does not agree, to the extent that he has a negative attitude toward the organization.

Questionnaires were filled out by 1,676 employees of an electronics manufacturing organization. Two product divisions of the company were included and all subjects had been employed three months or more. Employees' goals for the organization were measured by a modified Q-sort technique. Actual goals were measured by averaging data obtained from 23 executives.

The findings generally confirmed the first two hypotheses. However, only tentative evidence supporting the third was found. The findings suggested a tentative formulation of a generalization concerning the way in which perception of social objects is influenced by certain characteristics of the perceiver. Persons tended to attribute their own attitudes, opinions, and goals to persons, groups, and organizations toward which they had a positive attitude and to deny them in persons, groups, and organizations toward which they had a negative attitude.

152. Vroom, Victor H. "Ego-Involvement, Job Satisfaction, and Job Performance," Journal of Personnel Psychology, 15 (Spring, 1962), pp. 159-177.

In this study a person was described as ego-involved in a task or job to whatever extent his self-esteem was affected by his perceived level of performance. The hypotheses tested were: (1) The greater the amount of autonomy afforded a person in his work role, the greater the positive relationship between the amount of his ego-involvement in his job and his level of job performance. (2) The more ego-involved a person is in his job, the greater the positive relationship between the amount of his opportunity for self-expression in that job and his job satisfaction and adjustment.

Data for the first hypothesis were obtained in a study of 94 supervisory and 305 non-supervisory employees. The second involved 489 hourly blue-collar workers. Measures of ego-involvement, job-satisfaction, satisfaction with self and health, work-related tension, absences, opportunity for self-expression in the job, job performance and autonomy were obtained.

Persons who were ego-involved in their jobs were rated higher in job performance than those who were not ego-involved. There was a tendency for the relationship between ego-involvement and performance to be greater for persons who were high in autonomy, although the results were not significant. The job satisfaction and satisfaction with self of persons who were ego-involved in their jobs was significantly more positively related to the amount of their opportunity for self-expression in their jobs than it was for those low in ego-involvement. Similar, but non-significant differences were found for measures of satisfaction with health, reported feelings of tension, and frequency of absences.

153. Vroom, Victor H. and Floyd C. Mann. "Leader Authoritarianism and Employee Attitudes," Personnel Psychology, 13 (Summer, 1960), pp. 125-140.

The authors explored the problem of the relationship of the authoritarianism of supervisors to the attitudes of their subordinates and the possible effect on the relationship of work situational characteristics.

Two types of work groups in a large package delivery company were used. The first type consisted of 24 groups of package handlers worked in small, closely knit groups. Their job made teamwork and almost constant contact with supervisors necessary. The second type consisted of 28 groups of truck drivers and their dispatchers. They worked alone, for the most part, with restricted contact with co-workers and their supervisors, from whom they required accurate information. Supervisor authoritarianism was measured by items from Adorno's F scale. A questionnaire with fixed alternative responses measured employee attitudes.

The package handlers preferred equalitarian, employee-centered leadership. The correlation between supervisors' authoritarianism and attitude toward supervisor was -.41. For the truckers it was the opposite, +.41; they preferred authoritarian supervisors. The nature of the jobs seemed to determine preferred leadership style. In closely knit groups with a high degree of interaction, an employee-centered supervisor was more likely to keep the group working in harmony. In groups where contacts were restricted and members worked independently what was needed was confidence that the supervisor knew what he was doing and could give clear directions, so that confusion could be avoided. Preferred type of leadership and effectiveness of leadership may be determined by situational characteristics. The study also cast doubt on the extent to which aspects of leader behavior could be inferred from the perceptions of their subordinates.

154. Vroom, Victor H. Work and Motivation. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1964.

In this book Vroom presented a critical synthesis and appraisal of existing research in the field of worker motivation. The author stressed that research in this area must be concerned with individual work behavior and focused on its explanation, rather than on its control: it must be based on objective observation, and use variables related to motivated behavior. In the light of theoretical models and concepts, the author discussed both the effects of motivational variables on behavior in work roles and the effects of work roles on motivation. Work roles provided wages, required the expenditure of mental or physical energy, permitted a contribution to the production of goods or services, required social interaction and defined social status. Occupational choice was discussed with relation to preference, choice and attainment. These were all influenced by motives, abilities, psychological changes resulting from work roles, self-conceptions of occupations, realities of occupations, and social influences of family, religion and sex. The author's discussion of satisfaction with work roles was divided into the determinants of job satisfaction and the relation of job satisfaction to job behavior. Job satisfaction and job attitudes were considered together. Most instruments for their measure were not truly comparable. According to the author, the most carefully constructed instrument, and the most satisfactory one, was the Cornell Job Description Index. Many studies of job satisfaction attempted to establish a causal relationship between satisfaction and a characteristic of a work role. The variables considered usually were supervision, work group, wages, promotional opportunities, hours, and job content and job level, involving achievement, self-actualization and control over work. The emphasis has been on dissatisfaction as a result of an unhealthy work situation, although it may be a result of personality variables within the individual. This over-simplified theory has led to many correlational findings which may not be of value when the complexity of the phenomena they purport to measure and the typically large variance among subjects exposed to the same situation are realized. Studies of the relation of satisfaction to turnover, absences, accidents, and performance were cited. The book also considered the problem of performance in work roles, examining the meaning of the level of performance, the function of motivation, and the effects of a number of motivational variables on performance, e.g., need for achievement, opportunity for decision-making, use of valued perceived abilities, anxiety and stress.

155. Weinberg, Edgar and Robert Ball. "The Many Faces of Technology," Occupational Outlook Quarterly, 11 (May, 1967), pp. 7-10.

Technological change was defined in this paper as the introduction of new equipment, processes, or methods in production distribution which makes possible new or improved products or services. Knowledge and understanding of existing and impending technological change can help companies, educational institutions, and the government to formulate training and readjustment policies, in order to minimize disrupting effects on workers and communities. Nine broad categories of technological changes were identified: (1) electronic computers used for data processing; (2) use of instruments for measuring, detection, gathering data, etc.; (3) improvements in machinery; (4) communication technology; (5) advances in metalworking technology; (6) developments in energy and power; (7) advances in transportation; (8) development of new products, processes, and materials; (9) new techniques of management. The net effect on industrial employment depends particularly on the level of demand for the industry's products and general trends in output or economic growth. One of the most obvious trends is the decreased proportion of semi-skilled and unskilled jobs requiring physical labor. In the future, American workers will have a need for more adaptability as technology reshapes men for their jobs. This points out the importance of broad education and training as preparation for work. Future job preparation will require counselors and guidance personnel to have a broad knowledge of changing technology and its possible effects on the location and nature of jobs.

156. Weiner, Frederick. "Employment of Youth," Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 13 (Summer, 1965), pp. 251-256.

In the long run, neither social agencies nor the public employment agencies can solve the problem of youth unemployment, as these agencies are remedial in function, rather than preventive. The long-range answers are to be found in reconstructing and redesigning our educational and economic system to meet the needs of youth and the nation as a whole. As a first step toward alleviating the problem, there must be preplanning at all governmental levels on demographic features, educational needs, and manpower requirements. The author suggested that Conant's plan for restructuring the schools be accompanied by parallel changes in industry, business, and commerce. In general, he proposed changes in both the educational institution and the military, so that passage between either of them and industry can be more fluid and simplified. Specifically, he suggested a government-industry agreement, whereby industry will accept a certain portion of youth on a training or apprenticeship basis; a flexible school program closely tied to local industry, so that students could be interchanged between them during high school years; and the use of youth on public works projects (along the lines of the Civilian Conservation Corps), enabling them to receive a salary, attend classes, and perform useful public work concomitantly.

157. Wernimont, Paul. "Intrinsic and Extrinsic Factors in Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, 50 (February, 1966), pp. 41-50.

The author's purpose was to test the findings of Herzberg and others that the five major intrinsic factors related to job performance (recognition, achievement, work itself, advancement, and responsibility) are the primary determinants of job satisfaction, and that the five major extrinsic factors related to the job environment (salary, company policies and practices, technical aspects of supervision, interpersonal relations in supervision, and working conditions) cause job dissatisfaction. The hypotheses were: when persons describe a time in which they felt satisfied on their jobs, the proportion of intrinsic item endorsements is greater than extrinsic, and when dissatisfied, is less.

The subjects for this research were 50 accountants and 82 engineers, employed at a variety of Midwestern companies. They were administered a two-part, forced-choice questionnaire: in one part they described a very satisfying job situation in the past; in the other, a very dissatisfying one. Each part contained 50 pairs of intrinsic and extrinsic items, matched on the basis of both a preference index and a satisfaction index. To obtain a comparison with free-choice response, the subjects were also asked to mark the 10 factors in the entire range that were most important in these situations. Present feeling about the factors and the job in general were measured on another scale.

Contrary to Herzberg's findings, more intrinsic than extrinsic items were endorsed in describing both satisfying and dissatisfying situations. Achievement, work itself, and responsibility were mentioned most often in describing past satisfying situations; lack of advancement and recognition, in dissatisfying situations. With free-choice, more extrinsic items were endorsed in dissatisfying situations, but it was still less than the number of intrinsic items. Expectations strongly influence satisfaction with job factors and with these subjects extrinsic factors, such as salary, were known beforehand and were part of the job contract. Of the five extrinsic job factors, good relationships with one's boss was the strongest contributor to job satisfaction.

158. White, Harrison. "Management, Conflict and Sociometric Structure," American Journal of Sociology, 67 (September, 1961), pp. 185-199.

The primary objective of this paper was to analyze the organizational structure and significance of chronic interdepartmental conflict, in a manufacturing corporation, over a new program of research and development (R & D). The second objective was to develop a model for inferring the structure of interpersonal relations within a permanent organization subject to conflict.

A questionnaire was developed from depth interviews. Company records supplemented the questionnaire which was given to 16 managers of a corporation. A model proposed by Selznick was used to analyze the conflict and consensus among the managers. In this model the complexity of company goals leads to delegation of authority, resulting in specialization as to personnel and ideology in the different departments and a parallel growth in interdepartmental conflict. The primary assertion was that the different types of conflict regarding R & D was continuous, no type ever being more than temporarily resolved. The issues were categorized according to whether the primary goal in the conflict was invasion, expansion, or insulation.

It was found that uncertainty was the key variable in the conflict situation. A major technique used for negotiations was the manipulation of the uncertainty of the other side on specific issues. The influence of outside opinion led to uncertainty about the objective worth of the R & D program, so that the conflict could not really be resolved by eliminating R & D. The variation between departments in part merely reflected differential sensitivity to outside influence, and also, the differences in their tactical positions in conflicts.

159. Whitehill, Arthur M., Jr. "Cultural Values and Employee Attitudes: United States and Japan," Journal of Applied Psychology, 48 (February, 1964), pp. 69-72.

The findings were from an incomplete study of the influence of cultural orientation, indigenous to a given society, on employee attitudes about reciprocal obligations in employee-employer relations. Thus far, a survey of 2,000 production workers, equally divided between the United States and Japan, in four roughly comparable firms, had been completed. The basic assumption was that behavioral decisions were made partly on the basis of reciprocal relationships, i.e., what we feel is expected of us and how well others are fulfilling our expectations of them. These expectations are molded by the total environment and will vary markedly from one culture to another.

The questionnaire asked for the employee's perception of his and the company's obligations in the areas of employment continuity, economic and personal involvement of management, identification with organization, status transfer, sources of motivation, and other aspects of the work situation. Four choices were given for each situation.

The results of one question in each area demonstrated differences in cultural orientations. The Japanese expected more of management; more than half expected management to continue an incompetent worker's employment indefinitely. They preferred to have management provide company housing at low rental, while Americans preferred the company to provide low-cost loans enabling them to buy their own homes. Seventy per cent of the Japanese thought the supervisor should give personal advice on marriage, whereas 40 per cent of the Americans felt the company should be involved in such personal matters. The Japanese showed greater willingness to identify themselves with the company; more than two-thirds accorded the job equal importance with personal life, while the Americans wanted the job completely separated from personal life. The Japanese workers accorded superior status to their immediate supervisors outside of work, while the Americans felt they were their equals. The cultural background of the Japanese also showed up clearly in their motivation for doing a good job. This study attempted to show that workers perceived reciprocal obligations in employee-employer relationships, and that culture was a determining force in the nature of these obligations on both sides. Mutual satisfaction depended partially on management understanding of and willingness to work through cultural values and the employee attitudes they engendered.

160. Williams, Lawrence, William Whyte, and Charles Green. "Do Cultural Differences Affect Workers Attitudes?," Industrial Relations, 5 (May, 1966), pp. 105-117.

The purpose of this study was to determine whether the principles of human relations, inferred from research in the United States, are applicable to supervisor-worker relationships in other countries.

This was a post hoc analysis of an exploratory questionnaire study in Peru and America, attempting to analyze workers' reactions to supervision in the context of one dimension of personality (interpersonal trust and faith in people) and one dimension of perception of the organization (work-group cohesiveness).

The data generally supported the hypothesis that individuals with low trust, in Peru, tended to evaluate their superiors in terms of administrative and technical, or initiating, structure ability. With higher levels of trust, greater appreciation of human relations in Peru correlated with satisfaction with the supervisor and appeared similar to the American worker ratings. The greatest difference between the two cultural groups was with regard to emphasis on production and closeness of supervision. Implications for intercultural studies were that cultures have different worker identifications to work-group and supervisory style, and that the concepts of work group, per se, are not trans-culturally synonymous.

161. Williamson, M. L. "Sound Human Relations for Younger Workers," Personnel Journal, 39 (April, 1961), pp. 466-467.

Based on her experience with younger employees and other personnel in a department store, the author, Personnel Director of Youngsters in Des Moines, Iowa, offered various observations concerning youthful workers. Youths bring a "fresh" viewpoint to a job. They greet customers with enthusiasm, having no preconceived ideas about customer purchasing power or shopping habits. As they are being trained, there is little self-consciousness in adapting to procedures. Youthful workers do not have the self-discipline of many of the older workers, so that they "goof off" when confronted with unpleasant duties, or become too interested in long "coffee breaks" or getting together with their friends. The author viewed the 16 year old as a part of the family unit still under the discipline of parents and teachers. At work the youthful worker is not suddenly transformed into an adult, but he does begin to throw off the fetters of the close restriction of family and teacher relationships. Adults cannot judge this generation of 16 to 20 year olds by their experience at those ages. Contemporary youths are products of different environments. Adults must face up to the understanding of basic values in life, not the outward expression of manners or morals which become confused in critical attitudes, especially toward youth.

162. Wirtz, W. Willard. "A Human Renewal Program: To Salvage the Nation's 800,000 Unemployed Teenagers," Occupational Outlook Quarterly, 10 (February, 1966), pp. 1-4.

In 1965, there were more people employed than ever before. The overall unemployment rate was down a decimal point, but the youth unemployment rate was 13 per cent, three times the general rate. There are 800,000 individuals between the ages of 14 and 19 (one-fourth of the total unemployed) who are looking for work. Two major factors are responsible: (1) the post-war baby crop is now coming of age; and (2) automation is reducing the number of unskilled jobs. Statistics indicate that general economic expansion will not materially reduce the number of unemployed youths. There is also a growing uneasiness about the implications of an increasing number of young people leaving school and moving into employment before they are equipped for work. A program is needed that provides jobs and a human renewal program on an individualized basis. It is suggested that a list be made in every city of persons between 14 and 24 years of age who are looking for work. Subsequently, follow-up studies should be made in order to identify the needs of these youth. Youth employment counseling should be part of the process of leaving school. Ten census tracts in Hartford with male unemployment rates over nine and one-half per cent in 1960 were examined. The one clear common denominator was the low educational attainment. Though the education these individuals had was slight, it was also inadequate because it was college-oriented and they were not going to college. Vocational education, apprenticeship, and on-the-job training programs should be more fully developed. It is more important to train the young to be self-supporting than merely to keep them in school until they reach 16. The author stated that an intensive program along the lines suggested was necessary to decrease unemployment among today's youth.

163. Wispe, Lauren. "A Psychologist Looks at Motivational Problems in Training," Occupational Outlook Quarterly, 9 (September, 1965), pp. 13-15.

Motivation is defined as the specific physical and social conditions which initiate, direct and perpetuate goal-seeking behavior. A person can be motivated by some reward system. Motives are hierarchically structured. This has relevance if one is trying to help psychologically and economically impoverished people find a better life; these people must see inducements as rewarding. The family has been emphasized as one point of entry. It functions to initiate and develop a common set of motives which are supposed to prepare the child to live comfortably and productively, but the socialization of some individuals is defective. Lower-class families generally talk less frequently to their children, impairing the language function. Fatherless homes negatively affect IQ; thus, where the family fails to function properly the intellectual lives of the children are impaired. The long-term unemployed, though aware of middle-class values, are unable to orient themselves into performing. It seems that dropouts in training courses come from environmentally poor homes. Some must be taught to withstand frustration. The problem in changing adult motives is that people tend to construct the kind of life they have been used to and seem to perpetuate it with whatever means are at their disposal.

164. Zurcher, Louis A. "Me, A Philosopher!--(Human Relations Approach in Industry and Definition of the Nature of the Employee)," Personnel Administration, 28 (March, 1965), pp. 41-44.

This article discussed the various philosophical and psychological concepts of man in his role as part of industry. Psychologists tend to develop concepts of man as passive or active. Industry has always treated the employee as a passive man and assumed production could be increased by providing the correct outside stimuli. At first, theory purported that with the work organization neatly charted, man would perform in a totally rational manner for money. Subsequent theories of management treated the employee as a machine who could perform the movements of his job if the work environments were scientifically organized. The human relations approach not only treated the employee as passive, but as a social individual who would perform better in a social environment--i.e., coffee breaks, company picnics, and participation in management decisions. Chris Argyris opined that a mature, healthy adult is relatively independent, has initiative and self-determination, flexibility in behavior, a sense of integrity, is potentially interested in something for its own sake, and has a flexible time perspective. Our typical work structure requires the opposite of this characterization, namely a passive man. Therefore, conflict and work pathology result from the attempted fusion of man's active nature with the passive expectations of management. Thus, management may be doing the employee great harm and limiting the potential efficiency of the organization.

165. Zytoruski, Donald G. "Avoidance Behavior in Vocational Motivation," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 43 (April, 1965), pp. 746-750.

This article dealt with a presentation of vocational motivation theories as specific cases of general motivational theory, noting the strict adherence of the theorists to taxonomies of positive motives. It was proposed that avoidance behavior be included in the theories, noting support from the work of Miller and Mowrer. Two case studies of apparent career avoidance behavior were presented, along with a third case which demonstrated the development of neither positive nor negative attributes to the idea of a career. It was suggested that vocational guidance instruments attempt to measure avoidance behavior, and that the naive view that everyone has some positive motivation toward work be discarded.

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